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A BEACON OF HOPE--THE EXCHANGE-OF-PERSONS PROGRAM.

United States Advisory Commission on International Educational and Cultural Affairs.

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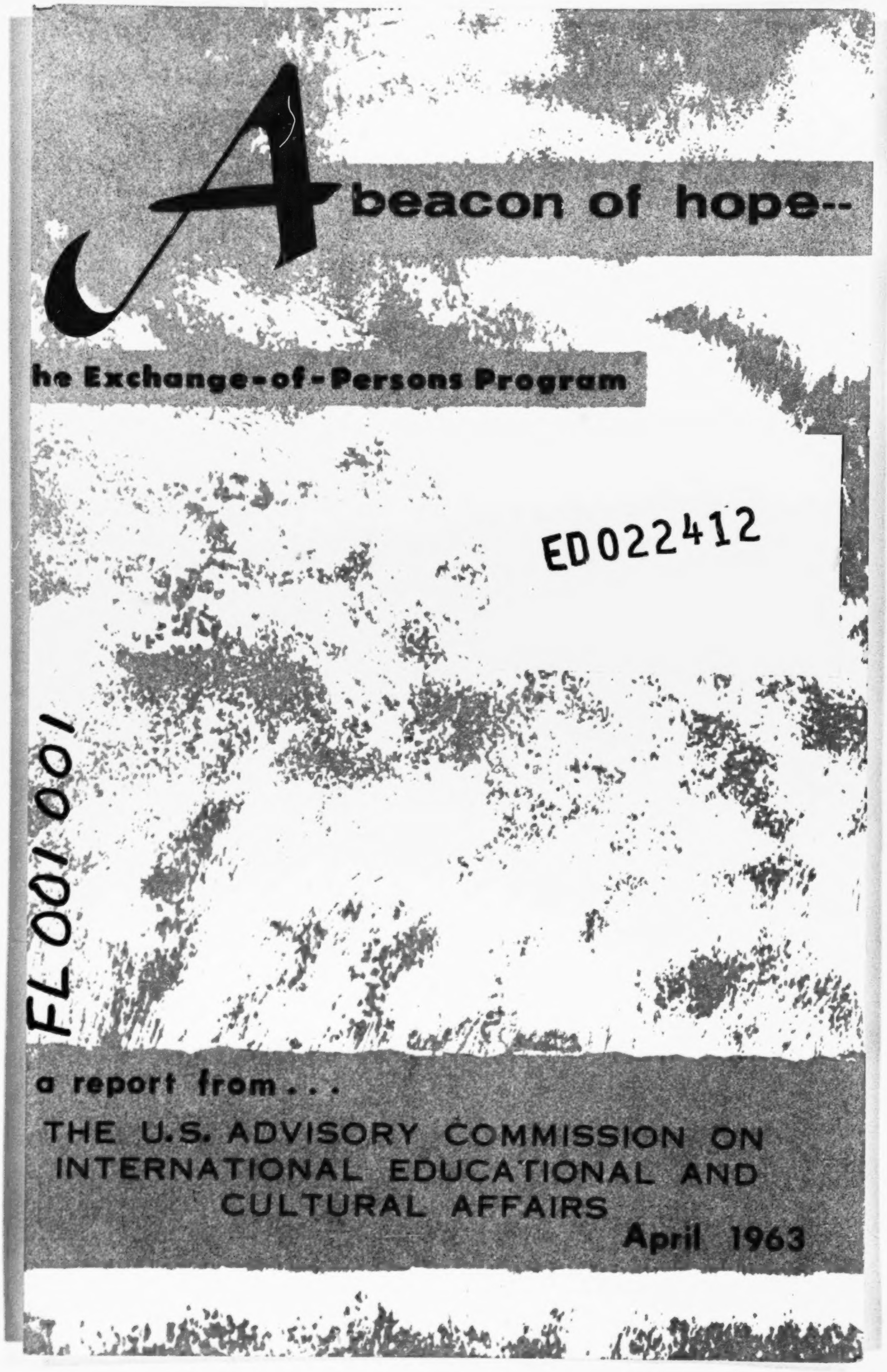
The effectiveness of the Department of State's educational and cultural exchange program is studied with special reference to foreign students, leaders, and teachers who have come to the United States on grants. Extensive interviews with former grantees (1949-60) and inquiries among prominent professionals, embassy personnel, and high level officials provide the background for this report. The greatest attention is devoted to identification of program objectives and an assessment of how well they have been satisfied. Suggestions for improvement center around the foreign grantee, though the American grantee is given some consideration. Coordination of policy and approach is outlined, and there is also a short section on administration. An appendix lists the number and kind of grantees for fiscal years 1949-62 and program years 1960-62. (AF)



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a report from . . .

THE U.S. ADVISORY COMMISSION ON
INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND
CULTURAL AFFAIRS

April 1963

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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A beacon of hope--

The Exchange-of-Persons Program

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THE U.S. ADVISORY COMMISSION ON
INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND
CULTURAL AFFAIRS

April 1963

United States Advisory Commission on International Educational and Cultural Affairs

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about this report . . .

This report is a special study of the effectiveness of the educational and cultural exchange program carried on by the United States Department of State.

It has been prepared as a report to Congress and also to the American people by the U.S. Advisory Commission on International Educational and Cultural Affairs, which was appointed by President Kennedy a year ago, May 1962. The legislation under which this exchange program is conducted, the so-called Fulbright-Hays Act (Public Law 87-256) of September, 1961, not only created the Commission but specifically required that it make this special study of whether the program has been effective.

In requesting the study, the Congress specified that emphasis be put "on the activities of a reasonably representative cross section of past recipients of aid," that is, upon the activities of the people who had visited the United States on Department of State grants since the beginning, in 1949, of the Department's world-wide educational and cultural exchange program.

To appraise adequately the effectiveness of the program for former grantees is a difficult, perhaps an impossible task.

Many of the effects of an educational and cultural exchange program are intangible. They cannot be measured by research techniques now available. We recognize this limitation. We have therefore deliberately used a wide-angle lens and drawn upon a variety of sources to capture the most comprehensive possible picture of the program.

Our inquiry was conducted both overseas and in the United States and tapped the following major sources:

OVERSEAS:

1. We made a detailed study of former grantees and of prominent local leaders in 20 countries. This study, carried out by International

Research Associates of New York City, covered 2,696 former grantees who came to the United States under the exchange program at some time since its beginning as a world-wide activity in 1949, through 1960. They were approached by either personal or mailed interview, with inquiries on their experience as grantees both in the United States and upon their return home. To have a cross-check on the views expressed by actual grantees, the study sought opinions on the program from 1,146 non-grantee leaders, prominent persons in many professions in the same 20 countries. The countries included in this survey represented every major region of the world. They were: Britain, France, Sweden, India, Turkey, Japan, Malaya, the Philippines, Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Guatemala, Uruguay, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Rhodesia, South Africa, Sudan, and Tanganyika.

2. We conducted a detailed inquiry of U.S. Embassies (including two Consulates General) in selected countries. These countries were, with the exception of France, the same 20 countries as covered in the research study, plus a group of others which have had significant experience with the program. The Commission asked the U.S. Ambassadors, and through them the knowledgeable officers on each post, for their views on the program as they saw it in actual operation in the field. In all, 131 officers from 26 of our Missions abroad responded. The Missions replying were: Belgium, Sweden, Germany, Britain, Poland, Yugoslavia, Turkey, Iran, India, Greece, the Philippines, Viet-Nam, Japan, Korea, Malaya, New Zealand, Colombia, Chile, Mexico, Guatemala, Uruguay, Brazil, Kenya, Ghana, South Africa, and Sudan.

3. A third phase of our overseas study was conducted by our Commission members, six of whom, on recent visits to Europe, Latin America and Africa, made close personal inquiries into various aspects of the exchange program.

IN THE UNITED STATES:

4. We questioned a substantial number of private individuals who have played a prominent role in education and cultural exchange over a period of years. This group included university presidents and academic leaders, and chief officials of a variety of private exchange agencies, foundations, community organizations and volunteer groups.

5. We interviewed a number of high-level officials in Washington capable of giving us pertinent and thoughtful analyses of the program and its effectiveness.

6. We enlisted the help of the National Association of Foreign Student Advisors in obtaining the views of key members of their organization on many college and university campuses. These advisors have dealt with the day-to-day academic and social problems of the foreign student in the United States.

7. We sought out the principal officers immediately concerned with the educational and cultural affairs program in the Department of State, and asked them to share their experience with us.

8. We reviewed the fairly extensive research which has been done over the past decade on the operation and effectiveness of the exchange program.

9. Finally, we drew upon the experience of our own Commission members who have been closely concerned with educational and cultural interchange both in the United States and abroad.

After reviewing all of these varied sources, which together probably constitute the most broadly based survey ever made of the program, we have formed the conclusions and recommendations in this report.

We have focused our study on the foreign grantee. This was the chief matter of interest to the Congress. We have studied American grantees only with reference to professors and lecturers. The many other aspects of the Department of State's educational and cultural exchange program—cultural presentations, American studies, exchange of teen-agers, the American specialists program, English-language teaching, support to American schools abroad, were not considered direct subjects of inquiry for this report. A report on cultural presentations has already been made to the Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs; a report on American Studies abroad will be completed before June of this year.

Our present survey was primarily concerned with the exchange program as planned and administered by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the Department of State, and carried out overseas under the general supervision of the United States Information Agency. The Commission could not and did not in this study inquire into the extensive exchange programs conducted by scores of private agencies, or those conducted by other Government agencies.

We recognize, however, that the proper concern of the Commission, and of the Department of State through the Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs, is with *all* aspects of educational and cultural exchange, both private and public. Throughout our report we have constantly attempted to be mindful of the fact that the State Department's exchange programs are only a part, albeit a key part, of a total effort of the American people to establish a personal relationship between themselves and the people and countries of our common world.

Although our first responsibility is to report on the effectiveness of past programs, the Commission feels it has an obligation, as well as an opportunity, to report here its recommendations for making the exchange of persons more effective in the future.

We wish to express our debt and appreciation to the many important and busy people who have made their experience available to us. We hope that this report will serve, for them as for Congress and the general public, as a fair summing up of the accomplishments of the program's first 14 years as a world-wide effort.

John W. Gardner
Chairman
United States Advisory Commission on
International Educational and Cultural Affairs

April 1, 1963

Summary

The United States educational and cultural exchange program has become a basic aspect of this country's relations with almost every part of the world. It is a program conceived and in a sense conducted by the American people themselves as a direct personal expression of their good will and good intent toward the people of other nations. As such, it embodies what all of us as Americans feel are the common human interests which we share with people all over the globe, including our passionate belief in education and in the freedom of intellectual inquiry, and our mutual hopes of peace.

The U.S. Advisory Commission on International Educational and Cultural Affairs was asked by Congress to appraise the effectiveness of this program with special reference to foreign students, leaders, teachers and others who have come to the United States on State Department grants.

After conducting what we believe is the most broadly based survey yet made of the program both overseas and in the United States, we present the following conclusions:

1. *Testimony is overwhelming from all sources that the program as a whole is effective.* The Commission was frankly surprised, though gratified, at the wealth, variety and convincing character of the evidence.

Out of 53,000 foreign grantees brought to the United States since 1949, there were perhaps unavoidably some cases of poor selection, of bad programing and placement. There were a few grantees who left with—possibly came with—negative, even hostile attitudes, or who for various reasons were unable to benefit from their experience here. But these instances, we find, are the fractional minority; the balance of evidence is overwhelmingly on the side of success. *The evidence is also conclusive that the program has proved itself an essential and valuable part of America's total international effort.* The basic concept of the program, its potential in accomplishing a wide variety of essential and desirable ends, were overwhelmingly endorsed.

2. *There is impressive testimony that the exchange program increases mutual understanding.* The great majority of all types of persons queried, from American ambassadors to foreign and United States university heads, cited increased understanding of America and Americans as one of the most outstanding results of the program, and better understanding between the United States and other nations as one of its chief and clearly demonstrated values. Returned grantees named increased understanding of Americans as one of the most important results of their stay in the United States.

3. *Evidence is abundant that the exchange program has succeeded in helping dispel among foreign visitors many misconceptions and ugly stereotypes about the American people.* Experience in this country, even for visitors on a short study tour, is remarkably effective in communicating a favorable impression of the American character and customs broadly conceived. Particularly singled out for comment by grantees were the vitality of American thought, the American sense of drive and organization, and a group of warm personal qualities differing notably from the stereotyped qualities which grantees apparently had expected to find.

4. *The exchange program does not bring about a uniformly favorable point of view on all aspects of the American scene; the reaction of former grantees varies considerably with the country from which they have come, and with the particular aspect inquired about.* In general, grantees from European countries were most critical; those from Latin America the most laudatory. For example, only 11% of grantees from Britain as compared with 86% from Argentina and Guatemala commended the economic system of the United States. Only 10% from Sweden, as compared to 72% from Colombia reported favorable opinions of the U.S. political system. Among all aspects of American life, America's scientific development received the highest commendation from former grantees as a whole; American race relations the lowest.

5. *The program has been outstandingly successful in providing a valuable educational experience to foreign grantees.* Although their average visit to the U.S. lasted less than a year, a high proportion of returned grantees report that they have benefited substantially from their experience in the United States—most notably in increased knowledge in their professional field and in the visit's favorable influence on their work and career. Only 2% found this influence other than favorable. Three-fourths of the grantees say their stay in the United States increased their confidence in their work; and

half or more say it had a good effect on their professional title and standing.

6. *The evidence is significant, though somewhat less conclusive, that the grantee's U.S. visit has also benefited his home country,* by enabling him to transmit to it valuable new ideas, skills, knowledge and attitudes. Nearly three-fourths of the returned grantees report that they have proposed or put into practice an idea which was based on what they learned in the United States and designed to benefit their profession, their own organization and their community at large.

7. *The program has effectively established channels of communication between the people in other countries and the United States.* Broader perspectives, a wider "international outlook" were repeatedly cited as important results of the program both by grantees and by prominent persons abroad and in the United States who are familiar with it. Furthermore, well over two-thirds of all returned grantees occupy positions in which they can readily communicate their broadened perspectives—whether as teachers, journalists or top-level administrators. The great majority of all former grantees both in the United States and abroad keep up significant contacts with friends and professional colleagues discovered during exchange visits.

8. In increasing mutual understanding, in demonstrating American character and achievements, in furthering the grantee's own development and career and the strengthening of his country, *the exchange program has effectively supported one of the nation's most basic international objectives*—of helping support strong free societies able to work together, in mutual trust and understanding, on the grave issues of our time.

Thus the program as a whole has been found effective. The Commission feels, however, that it can be made even more effective if the following improvements are introduced:

Suggestions for Improvement

The Foreign and American Grantee

1. Too often foreign students, whether chosen by governmental or private exchange programs, are drawn from favored social and economic status groups, particularly in the underdeveloped countries where public education is not yet widespread. *We recommend that the exchange program make a concerted effort to seek out and select more "have-nots" with particular promise and talent, so that, in keeping*

with this country's traditions, an American exchange experience never becomes a privilege restricted to the elite. Where necessary to avoid accentuating a bias toward upper-income groups, we recommend that the English-language proficiency requirement for U.S. study be relaxed, *provided that* intensive English-language training is given prior to the students' taking up studies in the United States.

2. Similarly, in keeping with American traditions, the United States must clearly identify itself with the forces of constructive change and progress in the developing countries. *We recommend that the exchange program make a particular effort to seek out and select those candidates abroad who are sufficiently vigorous and restless to help promote desirable social and economic change.* This may mean in some countries choosing more rising young adults, including some who are locally considered "radical," "left-wing," or politically dissident. They must be given the opportunity to learn that there is a democratic road to reform.

3. To assure better quality foreign students for private exchange programs, *we recommend that more "field selection centers" be set up on a regional basis overseas, under private sponsorship, to assist U.S. universities and private agencies in choosing properly qualified students;* and to help the students select the university or college best suited to their needs.

4. To assure better placement and programing of foreign students and visitors in the U.S., we make two major comments: (a) The private agencies which, under contract to the Department of State, handle programing and placement of foreign students and visitors, have made an immensely important contribution to educational exchange. However, *we recommend that a special study be made of these private contract agencies to determine their present effectiveness and examine how they might more fully adapt themselves to the enormous growth in exchange in recent years;* (b) Personal visits with American families are considered by foreign visitors one of the most significant and memorable parts of their U.S. experience. Returned grantees, especially from the developing countries, repeatedly express the need for more personal contacts and visits with Americans in a U.S. trip. *We recommend that all programs for all foreign visitors provide more time and arrangements for meeting a wide cross section of American families.*

5. There is pervasive testimony that, with many outstanding exceptions, the quality of American professors and lecturers selected for overseas grants is not as high as it should be. *We recommend two*

remedies: (a) *A substantial increase in the very low salaries now offered to professors and lecturers, even if this means sharply reducing the number of grantees, as well as an allowance for travel for the grantees' dependents;* (b) *Increased use of direct recruitment of qualified candidates.* Overseas requests for American professors and lecturers should not be filled if first-rate persons are not available.

POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

6. Not enough attention has been paid to the role, quality and status of the Cultural Affairs Officer who carries out the educational exchange program overseas. *A special study should be made of the Cultural Affairs Officer, and the bearing that the administration of the educational and cultural program abroad by USIA may have on his work and career.*

7. "Fiscal starvation" was frequently cited as a recurrent weakness of the program, which undermines its effectiveness. Testimony is almost universal that the program as a whole has been underfinanced. *A special study should be made of the problems created for the program and the limitations placed upon it by the heavy reliance on foreign currencies. Further, two financial problems demand immediate remedy:* (a) *Funds should be provided at once for dependents' travel in order to secure better caliber American professors and lecturers for overseas grants;* and (b) *The present ludicrously low official hospitality allowances available to the State Department should be increased* so that at least a minimum of official hospitality and courtesies may be extended to foreign visitors.

8. *Better coordination among the various government agencies involved in exchange of persons continues to be the highest priority objective for improvement of the program.* The Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs has initiated important steps to coordinate the many diverse programs; but *much remains to be done.* The Assistant Secretary should continue actively to secure further coordination of these programs not only in Washington but at U.S. Embassies abroad.

9. *The character of the exchange program in any given country must be determined by the needs and character of that country,* and not by a formula applied indiscriminately to a group of countries. One country may require special emphasis on teachers, another on leaders, etc. *Thus, country-by-country planning is essential,* both in Washington and the field. At U.S. Embassies abroad, we urge our ambassadors to give the strong leadership that is essential to a well-planned and coordinated country program.

10. *In the developing countries, the exchange program should, where possible and in keeping with the character of the program, directly concern itself with the strengthening of their educational and social institutions*—helping to produce attitudes and leadership making for progress, and to build up local universities and educational agencies. "Third-country" training and exchange should be used much more fully by both government and private agencies which are able to do so.

11. *The new enthusiasm for work with developing nations should not lead to neglect or downgrading of the educational and cultural programs with Europe.* The vitality of the new Europe, the crucial importance of our allies, and Europe's continuing close cultural ties with the developing nations all underscore the need for continued effort in that area.

12. *Coordination of the approach and procedures of the various government agencies vis-a-vis the universities is urgently needed on the problems of educational exchange and development.* The Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs should continue to take all feasible steps to assure such coordination, and also to bring the universities more closely into the planning phase of overseas educational programs. Further, *to relieve the financial pressure upon universities* which receive foreign students and which are now called upon for considerable unreimbursed financial outlay, *the Commission endorses the proposal that "cost of education" grants be paid to them for all government-sponsored foreign students.*

In sum, the American people can feel pride and deep satisfaction that, although some improvements are yet to be made, the program has proved so effective to their purposes, and has established itself as a basic ingredient of the foreign relations of the United States. There is no other international activity of our Government that enjoys so much spontaneous public approval, elicits such extensive citizen participation, and yields such impressive evidences of success. In a time when most international activities seem almost unbearably complex, hazardous and obscure in outcome, the success of educational exchange is a beacon of hope.

I. Introduction

It is rare in the history of diplomacy that the active conduct of any aspect of a nation's foreign relations should lie in the hands of the people themselves, and require their personal and direct participation.

Today, however, the foreign relations carried on by the United States includes such a program. This is the educational and cultural exchange program which has become a basic aspect of this country's relations with almost every part of the world.

The inclusion of this program within the formal framework of United States foreign relations is symbolic of the enormous change that has taken place in the conduct of foreign affairs in the 20th century.

The historical developments that have given rise to this change are well known. The spread of democratic forms of government has made the majority of the world's rulers and leaders directly accountable to their people for the conduct of foreign as well as domestic affairs. The spread of education and communications has developed within almost all nations a more or less informed and aware public to whom all democratic governments—even totalitarian governments—must be responsive. Further, the rising aspirations of the people for social justice and economic progress have become a crucial factor in a country's well-being; to a very large degree, fulfillment of these aspirations determines the strength and stability of any government, and quite possibly the future of world peace.

As a result, the people of the world, including those once voiceless or ignored, have become a dominant factor in international affairs, a significant point of reference in any intercourse between nations. Foreign relations can no longer be conducted exclusively between official representatives of various governments. They must also be concerned, very deeply concerned, with the people at large in each country—with the people's attitudes, their state of progress and education, their level of information, their hopes and expectations.

This significant fact has enormously influenced the historic patterns of diplomacy, particularly since the last world war, in the United

States as well as other countries. The United States foreign relations today have come to include, aside from military programs, not only the traditional diplomatic arm, but an overseas information service to inform an educated and aware foreign public of America's policies and approaches. Further, an extensive development assistance program to help needful nations meet the aspirations of their people is today, of course, another highly important aspect of U.S. foreign affairs.

The foreign relations of the United States also include a program for exchange of persons—the extraordinary new dimension in the relationship of one country to another. This program was conceived as a direct effort of the American people to bring about mutual understanding between themselves and the people of the world. There has been nothing quite like this—a peaceable, sizeable exchange of persons, carried on by a government on behalf of an entire people—in the whole history of human affairs.

When viewed as an aspect of a great nation's foreign relations, the program has four rather remarkable characteristics impressed upon it by the American people who gave it shape: First, it is based on a strong, perhaps typically American faith in direct exposure and personal face-to-face experience between peoples as a means of dispelling misconceptions and developing understanding. Second, it uses education as the principal bridge of contact—the exchange of students, professors and scholars, and also of non-academic visitors on "study tours." In essence it is a program of international education. Further, it asserts the strong American commitment toward freedom of inquiry; exchange visitors are free to look and listen and to draw their own conclusions. Finally, it relies in very large part on private participation and initiative. The selection of all educational grantees, their placement in universities, the planning of study tour programs of foreign visitors and their contacts with Americans and American hospitality are almost wholly in the hands of private agencies and volunteer groups. Direct official involvement is kept to a facilitative minimum.

The program thus expresses what we as Americans feel are our common human interests with people over the globe—our passionate belief in education and the free inquiry of the human mind; our hope to enrich the cultural stream of life, our own and that of others; the wish to understand the world and its people and share knowledge and experience; our desire to demonstrate, in a world fearful of power and violence, our basic good faith and good intent; and perhaps, because idealism is never far from the American character, no less our hope to find all men brothers, alien to none.

In short, something cherished is at stake in this program. It is one aspect of America's foreign affairs and activities overseas to which the American people feel particularly close and with which many, as private individuals, are personally involved—the family which invites a foreign visitor to dinner; the university president with hundreds of foreign students under his charge; the school principal who shows his classroom to a visiting Indian teacher; the many volunteers, at every level, who contribute their time in selecting or counseling foreign students, or arranging trips and programs and extending hospitality for foreign visitors.

Since 1949, nearly 53,000 foreign visitors have come to the United States and over 21,000 Americans have gone abroad under the exchange program of the Department of State. Over one hundred and twenty countries are now sharing in this exchange.

Important as it is, the exchange program of the Department of State is but a small part of the great flow and counterflow of Americans and people from other countries who, on their own or with private or other government sponsorship, today cross oceans, borders and cultural barriers in order to see and be seen, teach and be taught in another land.

But it is a significant, a selective part. It is not too much to say that it embodies the hopes, the aims, the good will, even the dream of peace, of the American people.

The Congress has asked us to report whether this exchange program in the past has been effective—especially whether the bringing of foreign exchangees to the United States has been effective.

This report is our effort to do so.

THE PAST PROGRAM

The Department of State's exchange program in its present worldwide character began following World War II when, acting on a proposal of Senator J. W. Fulbright of Arkansas, Congress in 1946 authorized use of some of the foreign currencies, resulting from the sale of surplus war goods and material, to support educational exchange. It was broadened when, in 1948, Congress approved legislation sponsored by Senator H. Alexander Smith of New Jersey and (the then) Representative Karl E. Mundt of South Dakota for a specific international educational exchange as well as information program.

From the time the present program began—1949[1] through 1962, about two-thirds of all the 74,000 persons receiving exchange grants have been foreign visitors, and about one-third American. A summary table, given in the appendix, shows the kinds and numbers of "grantees" or recipients of grants. About half of all foreign grantees have been students, mostly at the graduate level. About a fourth of the grantees have been "leaders"—such prominent and influential persons as high-ranking foreign government officials, editors, judges, university presidents and the like. About an eighth of the foreign grantees have been teachers; an equal number have been professors and research scholars. A small proportion, 5%, have been "specialists"—persons outstanding in particular fields, from fine arts to ophthalmology. Most students and most research scholars and lecturers were awarded only travel expenses; most other exchangees received a full grant covering all necessary costs of their visit to the United States.

In general, the American grantees include a somewhat similar proportion of students—about half; almost all other American grantees have been professors, research scholars and specialists.

Initially, in the immediate post-war years, when surplus foreign currencies were available chiefly in Europe, the focus of the exchange program was on that area. In 1953, for example, there were nearly 1,700 student grantees coming to the United States from Europe, compared to 9 from Africa. As new countries came into being in Asia and Africa, considerably increased emphasis has been placed on exchange outside of Europe.

The volume of exchange has grown considerably since 1949. For American grantees alone the number has far more than doubled, to about 2,000 in 1962. The number of foreign grantees has gone up six times, totaling over 5,400 persons brought to the United States and its territories in 1962.

Most of the foreign student and research scholar grantees stay in United States colleges and universities for a year; perhaps a fourth remain as long as three years. Most leaders and specialists are here on short-term visits (usually from six weeks to less than six months), traveling extensively to see places and persons related to their special interests. Usually, the foreign grantee's visit in the United States has been programed by one of several private agencies under contract to the Department. Foreign students have been placed in colleges and universities and generally "looked after" by such an agency.

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[1] Strictly speaking, the first efforts at educational exchange started in 1938, 25 years ago, when a Division of Cultural Relations was established in the Department of State to facilitate exchange with Latin America. It was not until the so-called "Fulbright Amendment" of 1946, and the Smith-Mundt Act of 1948, however, that educational and cultural exchange became a major world-wide program. State Department statistics on the program begin with 1949. The legislation under which the program is conducted today is Public Law 87-256, the so-called Fulbright-Hays Act of September 21, 1961, which consolidated previous legislation, and which takes its name from its two sponsors—Senator Fulbright and Representative Wayne Hays of Ohio.

II. Are the Programs Effective?

Is the Program Valuable?

A fair question before judging the effectiveness of the program is whether it is worth doing at all. From the evidence before us, we must conclude that the educational and cultural exchange program has proved itself an essential part of America's total international effort.

There were many divergent views as to why it is essential, and how and why it should be improved. But the basic concept of the program, its potential in accomplishing a wide variety of essential and desirable ends are overwhelmingly endorsed. We believe this fact alone has great significance in any judgment of the program.

Is It Effective?

As indicated earlier, in seeking testimony concerning the effectiveness of the program, we cast our net very widely. But all of our varied sources responded uniformly to our basic question: the program as a whole has been effective. Some aspects of the program are judged to be more effective than others; a few were said to need critical review, possibly a few discontinued. There have certainly been some mistakes, some gaps, some failures. But the overall effectiveness of the program has been testified to in the evidence, clearly and beyond question.

Frankly the Commission has been surprised as well as gratified by the overwhelming testimony to the effectiveness of the program. This is not to say the Commission disagrees; rather that we had not expected such universal agreement from so many diverse sources; nor such a wealth and variety of positive evidence.

Objectives

One cannot judge the effectiveness of past programs without being clear as to what those programs were trying to achieve (or *should* have been trying to achieve). Recognizing this, we have drawn up a list of objectives which may serve as points of reference in judging not only past but future exchange programs under any governmental sponsorship.

1. *To Increase Mutual Understanding.* Mutual understanding is essential to constructive, peaceful relations among nations, indeed, essential to survival. It is not America's aim to persuade other people to "like" the United States and its people. It would be nice if they did, but the aim is shallow and self-defeating. America wants the *respect* of other nations, and that measure of understanding which will enable them to see why it holds certain views and takes certain positions. It is equally important that Americans understand the rest of the world.

2. *To Promote International Cooperation for Educational and Cultural Advancement.* The United States wishes to work with other peoples in furthering the idea that every individual shall have the right to develop his potentialities through education, and to cooperate in providing opportunities for such education. It wishes to further the ideals of individual dignity and worth, cultural integrity, freedom, justice, and world rule of law in collaboration with all peoples who share these ideals.

3. *To Work With Those Nations That Seek America's Collaboration in Economic and Social Modernization.* It is to the advantage of the community of free nations to assist those countries that are seeking to make the transition from traditional to modern societies. To the extent that they emerge as viable societies they can play a healthy role in the free world community. One intent of the State Department exchange program is to contribute, by those means consistent with the character of the program, to helping them make this transition. This task is of course the primary concern of the Agency for International Development.

4. *To Increase the Competence of the United States in Dealing With International Affairs.* Young people who gain their first experience abroad on exchange programs form a recruitment pool for later career assignments overseas. Mature scholars who spend time overseas strengthen their competence to perform the research and teaching so essential if U.S. universities are to contribute to international affairs. Every additional American who has an overseas experience contributes at least something to the general awareness and understanding of the larger world that must be an ingredient in America's own national life.

5. *To Further and Support Basic Foreign Policy Objectives of the United States.* At a time when mutual understanding is so essential

to peace, and when education is increasingly accepted as a vital factor in the development of nations, educational and cultural activities are an essential part of America's total international effort. They should be seen as an integral part of America's long-range constructive relations with other nations, as a means of building deep-rooted, continuing intellectual partnerships between American universities and individuals, professional and non-professional, and those of other lands. Such partnerships serve as sustaining links of understanding and mutual contact, essential to the maintenance of peace.

These differing objectives are said by some to conflict. Occasionally sharp words have passed between those who believe that political objectives have no place in the exchange program and those who do; or between those who feel the program should largely confine itself to training "manpower" for foreign countries and those who believe in education for its own sake.

We believe that the exchange program has reflected the American faith in education itself as a flexible many-sided instrument. America developed an educational system to serve a multitude of purposes—to provide the opportunity for education leading to individual fulfillment, to develop professional or technical skills, to create competent citizens, to broaden cultural and intellectual horizons, to promote research, to develop leadership, or to enable exceptionally talented people to reach high levels of scholarship and artistic achievement. This broad conception of the aims of education has served well in building a continent and creating a highly developed sophisticated society. It is not surprising that, as the American people designed their educational exchange program, they conceived it in much the same multiple terms—to reflect their faith in education as an instrument serving many essential and desirable ends.

But a cold recital of objectives is inadequate to express what it is that has made the program appeal so strongly to the American people. Call it perhaps a manifestation of American idealism, of a warm-hearted desire to believe, even to prove, that if the peoples of the world can only know each other better, help each other more, they will be more neighborly human beings, better able to share in peace our common world. Surely it is some purpose such as this which first brought the program into being and has drawn to it over the years the loyal support, the hours upon hours of volunteer time, the warm response of so many hundreds of thousands of Americans.

We do not believe, in any case, that the program can be fairly judged as to its effectiveness vis-a-vis any single or exclusive objective.

Rather we applaud the original and present sponsors of the program in Congress and the State Department for devising an exchange program which in its very variety, range and flexibility serves so many purposes.

In the following pages, we present the evidence we have found of the effectiveness of the program in serving the many objectives conceived for it in the past.

In Creating Mutual Understanding

We find convincing testimony that the program has been effective in increasing mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries.

Some of the most substantial evidence comes from our Embassy posts in 26 countries around the world, from the testimony of our United States Ambassadors, public affairs officers, cultural officers, and other knowledgeable persons on the posts. All of them are directly and immediately concerned—on the firing line, so to speak—with the need to increase understanding, and could be expected to be sharply critical of any activity which is either ineffective or which makes relationships and understanding more difficult. They have told us in unmistakable terms that the program's highest value in their view is specifically that it does promote mutual understanding.

Our United States Ambassador to Germany, for instance, told us, "I consider the development of greater understanding of the United States and its foreign policy, and the development of a greater mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of Germany to be the chief value of the program."

Our Ambassador in Yugoslavia told us, "Under this program, individual exchangees . . . receive first-hand knowledge and an understanding of the other country, its problems and aspirations, and help promote an understanding of their own country in turn. Such an understanding can be obtained only through personal contact, and can have an influence spreading beyond the immediate participants. In this respect, the exchange program is basically in Yugoslavia's interest, as well as our own."

Our Consul General in Kenya reports that, "Without question the chief value of the program is in giving prominent Kenya political and vocational leaders an opportunity to get to know the United States and its people and to understand better how and why we do the things we do."

Although a few Ambassadors were lukewarm in their praise of the program (and a few did not even trouble to reply to our query), the overwhelming majority of Embassy officers strongly confirm and support this testimony.

Our second piece of evidence is from the returned grantees themselves. In our 20-country study, former grantees reported that one of the two results of their United States visit of greatest value to them personally and to their own country was "increased understanding of Americans." Many grantees also said that their visit had been of particular value in helping Americans understand their home country.

In the same study, the great majority of the 1,146 influential leaders (non-grantees) in the 20 countries singled out "increased international understanding and cooperation" as the program's chief value, many especially naming "increased knowledge and understanding of the United States" and of the grantee's home country.

In the United States, in our inquiry of American leaders, we found a similar consensus that the program has promoted mutual understanding. Some particularly emphasized the *mutual*, the two-way effect of exchange. For example, the chancellor of an American university commented, "The programs have undoubtedly greatly stimulated the development of interest and concern in other cultures and areas on the part of American universities and colleges."

This is not to say that some United States visits have not misfired. A bad experience, particularly perhaps a bad racial experience, may create bitterness rather than understanding. There have been such instances. It is also true that some grantees, in spite of every effort to pick those who will benefit by their experience, appear to have come with a closed mind, or for various personal reasons to have been unable to absorb or understand another and very different culture.

On the basis of the evidence we have gathered, however, we feel satisfied that the past exchange programs have been effective in promoting, among the overwhelming majority of grantees, the mutual understanding long conceived as the chief goal of the program.

In Demonstrating American Character and Achievement

The most frequent obstacles to mutual understanding are the stereotypes and misconceptions people form of a country and people they have never seen. The United States like many other countries has been plagued by such stereotypes, some of which—by no means all—have been deliberately created and kept in circulation as part of the cold war. Correcting these misconceptions is therefore another of the important purposes of the exchange program. As phrased in the Fulbright-Hays Act, this purpose is "to demonstrate the educational and cultural interests, developments and achievements of the people of the United States." Our evidence is substantial that the program has been effective in fulfilling this purpose.

Although foreign visitors do not necessarily praise or even approve all aspects of the American scene, there is little doubt among any of our informants that, to cite one U.S. university leader, "these (exchange) programs have succeeded in creating a more favorable and less warped impression of the United States."

All our Embassies abroad reported that one of the high values of the program was that it helped dispel misconceptions and distorted pictures of the United States. This is the view held by the top Government officials whom we interviewed, and by the knowledgeable executives of the program in the Department of State.

It is a view substantiated by our recent study of returned grantees and influential leaders in 20 countries. Although most grantees tend to be in general favorably disposed to the United States, it is clear that many grantees first came to America with stereotyped misconceptions. This fact has been demonstrated in many earlier studies.

When, in our present study, the grantees were asked what they believed the most important thing to tell their countrymen about America, at the top of their list was the "American character." Apparently, as many of them expressly said, they found it refreshingly different from what they had expected and from the prevailing stereotype.

Frequently mentioned with approval was a group of characteristics showing the vitality of American thought—its capacity to stimulate, its curiosity, its open-mindedness.

A British researcher commented [illegible] just changed my whole life, the American attitude. They are more energetic and willing to try out more new ideas. They have a different way of thinking. I just got an impression of energy and things going on all the time." A Rhodesian doctor reported, "Of most value to me was studying at the Memorial Center for Cancer in New York—not only in the knowledge gained in my particular field, but also the insight it gave into the scope for enterprise and imagination in medicine . . . the lack of a rigid, a stereotyped thinking nurtured by the system such as one had experienced in Africa and the United Kingdom. . . . Now I miss the vitality and initiative of the U.S."

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Another group of characteristics frequently and favorably mentioned was the American's practical approach to getting things done, his drive and sense of organization, his devotion to work. Many grantees said their own work habits had improved as a result of their stay in the United States, and that one of the important things to tell their countrymen is how hard-working Americans are and how high is the American's respect for labor. This characteristic was most frequently noticed by grantees from the developing countries. A Malayan teacher remarked, "Only after I had visited the States did I get a true picture of America and her people. They don't pick up gold from the streets as most of us here imagine, to maintain the highest standard of living, but they get it by sheer hard work."

The grantees also felt it important to report back home that Americans have warm personal qualities, very different from the stereotype. To those of us familiar with the recitals of American defects heard in foreign intellectual circles, it was surprising to learn that former grantees (who include many intellectuals) found Americans friendly, sincere, frank, hospitable, kind, religious, family-oriented, peace-loving. Earlier studies of exchangees have shown similar impressions made on foreign grantees by a United States visit providing personal contact with Americans.

A Japanese teacher commented, "Up to now the materialistic side of America has been exaggerated through movies. . . . I was able to see the diligence and honesty of the American character different from the characters we usually see in American films. Through this experience, my image of Americans has been altered."

A Nigerian student said that he would tell his country-men that "In the first place, they (the Americans) are not living in a heaven of prosperity, but they are striving for a good way of living; that the image of America created abroad is not the same as the American in the U.S. 'Ugly American' is not the case for the American at home."

A Colombian specialist grantee expressed his reactions with almost embarrassing enthusiasm: "Direct contact with the people of the United States is a marvelous experience. Because of their sincere friendship . . . the generous hospitality in their homes . . . and so many other qualities which are distinctive of the inhabitants of that great country, one learns to love it, to respect it and to learn from it invaluable things, especially about an orderly and active life. The cordial treatment and sincere friendship of Americans are unforgettable and are the best basis for better understanding between our countries."

Some 10% of the grantees or less were critical of Americans in general. About 3% found Americans simply "not admirable." The most common single criticism—expressed by just under 2% of the grantees—was that Americans had no knowledge of or cared little about foreign countries and the grantee's home country in particular. Other grantees asserted that Americans were "conformists," or were "arrogant," "money-mad" ("teenagers think only of making purchases and nothing else"), "not educated or cultured," "stubborn with those whose ideas differ from their own."

Yet apart from these decidedly minority views, it is clear that Americans whom grantees meet are doing a remarkable job in correcting ugly stereotypes and communicating the better traits of the American character.

Within our 20-country study, a special group of 500 grantees were directly asked their reactions to some of the main features of the United States scene—the educational system, the arts, the economic and political systems, scientific development, inter-group (race) relations. The findings indicate that the exchange program does not bring about a uniformly favorable point of view on all aspects of the American scene. The reaction of grantees varied considerably with the country from which they came, and with the particular aspect inquired about. In general, grantees from European countries were the most critical; those from Latin America the most laudatory.

American science seems to be one exception. Almost unqualified admiration was given to U.S. scientific development by grantees from all nations. Comparison with the scientific work of other countries (with the exception of that of Russia) was nearly always favorable to the United States.

The American education system was ranked well by under half (46%) of all grantees. Grantees from the developing countries, however, were more impressed than others. About two-thirds of them rated it well, often with a considerable additional number finding it "good" at the university level, though "poor" at lower levels. Grantees from Europe and Japan tended to rank it low, although a sizeable number of them found it good at the university if not at other levels. About 55% of the French grantees found the American education system as a whole poor or inferior to their own. Grantees in the education field were as likely as the rest of the grantees to make these judgments of America's education system, although they were considerably more likely to add that it is good at some (usually the university) level.

Just under half of all grantees expressed approval of the U.S. political system. Again, grantees in the European countries and Japan (and this time India too) were considerably less likely to commend it than were grantees in other countries. In Sweden and Japan, for example, as few as 10–12% of them approved of America's political system compared to about 80% in Argentina and Guatemala. In Britain, France, India, Japan and Malaya from 20 to 24% found the U.S. political system poor or inferior to their own. It is perhaps worth noting that all of these countries have a parliamentary system of government.

As to the American economic system, half of the grantees, taken as a whole, found it good or "better than expected"; about another 10% found it good at some levels, poor at others. Again there were important country differences. Only 11% of the grantees from Britain and 24% from Japan, compared to substantially higher percentages in the underdeveloped countries (up to as many as 80% or more in Latin America), said they viewed our economic system favorably.

The arts in the United States impressed about half (45%) of the grantees, with another 7% finding the arts good at some levels, poor at others. Again, however, there was considerable variation between countries. Interestingly enough, far more grantees (72% or more) from France and Britain, and from most Latin American countries found the U.S. arts good or good at some levels, than did those from Japan or India, where only 14–18% expressed any similar approval.

America's inter-group (race) relations received the lowest rating of all aspects of the American scene, by all grantees from all areas. Of those who commented on race relations, only 24% found anything to commend. The Latin Americans were, however, most likely to make excuses for Americans, to say that, although it is bad, "it is a difficult situation."

We believe it significant to point out that elsewhere in our 20-country study, proportionately more grantees from Africa than from any other area reported that they feel it important to tell their countrymen about the "improving racial situation" in the United States. The evidence of improvement they cited were the "attempts at social and religious toleration," "government efforts to solve the race problem," "Federal laws against segregation," the "work of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People."

We may judge this willingness to cite the "improving" racial situation particularly remarkable in that some African grantees had experienced racial discrimination in the United States. The incidents, as the grantees reported them to us, make sorry reading. A Nigerian specialist told us: "I got shocked in Baltimore when no hotel near Johns Hopkins would allow me in." A Nigerian woman leader recalled the occasion vividly: "On Sunday, May 5, 1957 in Boston, I went in company of a group of about 60 in two sightseeing buses, leaving for Plymouth on a day that was wet and cold. It was here at the harbour that I tasted the pill of discrimination on the American soil. I was refused the use of the ladies' room in one hotel, and in yet another I was refused to be served food. I was the only coloured in the group. On a wet and cold day which I wasn't used to, such discriminatory practices could be doubly horrifying." Experiences such as these could, we believe, wipe out or embitter all the grantee's other experiences in the United States. They serve as sharp reminders that as Americans carry on their exchange program, the least admirable of American attitudes and customs are as visible as the best, and that only as Americans demonstrate their best can they in fact "strengthen the ties that unite us with other nations."

In Benefiting the Grantee

Many people, especially in the universities and academic community, feel that the chief purpose of the exchange program is education, for its own sake. Certainly, whatever other objectives the program may have, giving the grantee a valuable personal experience is fundamental. If the program does not succeed in this, it is very likely to fail in accomplishing any other objective. A fair test of the effectiveness of the exchange program therefore is that applied to education anywhere—Did it benefit the individual himself? Did it help him develop as a capable and self-confident person?

We are impressed with the evidence that the program has been effective as an educational instrument. Our 20-country study of former grantees and distinguished leaders of those countries is especially persuasive and illuminating.

Most frequently named by grantees as the most valuable result to them personally, from their United States experience, was increased knowledge gained in their own field. Grantees also cited improved work methods, more personal self-confidence, a generally "expanded viewpoint," broader personal contacts as the most valuable benefits of their United States experience. Such results clearly suggest a successful educational experience.

We are impressed that these marked results were felt after relatively short trips to the U.S.—the average length of stay for the majority of grantees was less than a year. Leaders, who stayed the shortest time (80% stayed less than 6 months) and who are older, established professionals, were naturally somewhat less likely to report a strong impact on their profession and work habits. Students, who stayed longest (some 60% stayed 1 to 3 years), were the most likely. But in general the educational impact on the grantees was marked whatever their age, type of grant, or length of stay in the United States. And also whatever their country. For it is both interesting and pertinent that important educational benefits were named by grantees not only from the less developed nations but also (except, in general, from France) from advanced nations where education systems and professional training opportunities are of high caliber.

A British graduate student reported, "I became more critical in my professional judgments." A French professor said it gave him "more than ideas, a certain realism in my approach to problems; also certain useful techniques, for instance in making a bibliography." A research scholar in the Philippines told us: "It has taught me to think critically and to solve problems more effectively." A Colombian engineer reported, "I feel that now I am more aware of details. I plan more carefully, perhaps I am more discerning." A Malayan professor reported: "I became time-conscious. I always evaluate things now; do planning and scheduling of work and am more critical, less sentimental. In general, I began to realize that there is more in life than just letting the days pass by without thinking of whether I have accomplished something or not. Now I always aim for accomplishment." A Guatemalan said: "I have learned to appreciate and respect my profession and to realize the esteem in which it is held."

Interviews with the prominent (non-grantee) leaders of the countries to which the grantees returned, overwhelmingly substantiate the reports of the grantees. A better education, better working habits, a broader global outlook, a gain in self-confidence, an increased desire to help his country, even improved social behavior—were some of the positive effects of a United States experience most often cited by these leaders. A few, however, said they noticed an unfavorable (or mostly unfavorable) impact on the grantees. Some thought the grantees learned little of value, or acquired an "inferior education" because of "low standards" in United States universities, or became "rude," "brash" and "ill-mannered," or "materialistic," or "too Americanized," or returned with "feelings of superiority." But such views came from a tiny minority—4%.

There is also substantial evidence that the exchange program has been, on the whole, effective in benefiting the professional careers of the grantees. This has been shown by several earlier studies made of the exchange program. Fresh evidence comes from our recent study of returned grantees.

The great majority—about three-fourths—of the returned grantees said that their United States visit had influenced their career. For most, the influence had been a favorable one; only 2% found it either mixed or unfavorable. The favorable influences cited most often were improved knowledge of the grantee's own field, and gain in professional (as distinct from personal) self-confidence. Improved work techniques were again cited.

In general, although there were exceptions, the influence on career was felt most markedly by students, again possibly because students were the youngest at the time of their grants (51% were less than 30 years old) and stayed in the U.S. the longest. Grantees from both the developed and developing countries remarked on the visit's influence on their careers, although more grantees did so from the developing countries.

Very sizeable proportions of grantees—over half the grantees in most countries and even more in the Far and Near East and Africa—also reported that their United States experience had favorably influenced their career in "intangible ways"—in their approach to their work and their own attitudes and philosophy toward it, even including (for 7% of the grantees) what they described as a more "altruistic," social service outlook. This comment from a Tanganyikan educational official is illustrative: "I work now not only to earn a living, but also to improve my fellow countrymen. I feel interested in every African who was not privileged to get an education."

Half or more of all returned grantees—the largest proportions coming from the developing nations—report, moreover, that their United States visit had a good effect upon their professional standing and title, on the amount of responsibility they were given in their work, and on the respect shown them by their supervisors and colleagues, as well as on the confidence they themselves feel in doing their work. One percent or less said their United States visit had a bad or even mixed effect on their title or rank.

A Rhodesian educator told us: "My decision to transfer from a headmaster's post to become an inspector (of schools) was influenced by my American studies, which brought me up to date with modern educational practice." An Indian biologist reported: "This (my present job) is a big jump from my previous position. The American degree is largely responsible for this post." A British scientist told us: "I learned the subject of magneto-hydrodynamics while in the States, and as a direct consequence of this, I obtained my present post as Senior Scientific Officer." A public official in Colombia reported: "I completely changed my occupation. I had been a lawyer before. My studies in the United States gave me the opportunity of learning what I really wanted to do. Before travelling, I knew nothing about social service."

Only some 8% said that their participation in the program had led to some professional difficulties on their return. The most frequently cited difficulty was the loss, during absences abroad, of a promotion or pay increment due. But there were a few other problems as, for example, a French engineer reported, "An American diploma leaves French universities indifferent if not scornful." There is some indication that grantees who have been back home several years are more likely to feel they have benefited from the program—perhaps as the full effect of the experience is felt on their work and in resulting promotions and responsibility.

In all, while some grantees suggest ways of improving both study and tour programs for foreign grantees, the Commission has found the evidence not only conclusive but impressive that the exchange program is effective in providing an educational experience of great importance and value to the grantees and their careers.

In Benefiting the Community

Another way to appraise the effectiveness of the program is to judge what beneficial impact it may have on the home community—that is, on the home country—of the grantee.

As might be expected, our evidence of this effect of the exchange program is less direct and substantial than for its effect on the grantees personally and on their careers. Yet several sources of our study suggest that a United States visit does benefit the grantees' home country and its institutions. The benefit may not always be tangible or immediate; it may take a period of years to express itself in adoption of new methods, skills and attitudes. Some benefits may be unplanned and unpredictable.

In any case, a very sizeable number of former grantees are now in positions sufficiently high and influential to assist their home countries in very important fields and bring their new-found knowledge to bear. Some of these came to the United States in their present "V.I.P."

positions; many others are grantees who have risen to their present positions since their United States visit. These people range from ministers of education, of agriculture or of transport to a president of a national women's council or social welfare organization; from university president, labor leader, economic planning official to senator or member of Parliament.

Three-fourths of all grantees surveyed are now either in supervisory posts or are teachers, and thus in positions to use their increased competence in their fields and to transmit understanding of the United States.

Our study shows that they do attempt to transmit this competence and understanding. About three-fourths of the returned grantees—even more in most developing countries—said that they have already either proposed or put into practice some significant ideas learned in the United States. Most of the proposals—in the less developed countries of the Far East, Africa and Latin America usually 50% or more—directly concerned the grantee's profession, the organization for which he works, and his community as a whole.

Since nearly half of the grantees are connected with educational institutions, a very substantial proportion of the changes they proposed involved the education system in their country—chiefly its objectives and teaching methods, but also its curriculum, administration, and even student-teacher relationships. About 60% of all teacher grantees (up to three-fourths in some of the developing nations) said they had already proposed or put into effect changes in their education systems.

For example, a French educator told us: "It was in the American schools that I discovered the indispensable role of the Student Advisor (*conseilleur d'orientation*). Returned to France, just as soon as I could I organized in a high school a documentation room on studies and careers, where every day I consulted with students and their parents. It was very successful; I had to leave my job as professor to devote myself wholly to this office." A Malayan language teacher said: "What I have proposed is employment of the direct method of teaching English by audio-visual means. The English lab at the University of Michigan has convinced me firmly that the teaching of a second language can be greatly improved by their methods."

A significant proportion of grantees outside the educational field said they also had proposed or put into effect changes in their professional fields. Here, leader and specialist grantees were those most likely to have made proposals for helping their country.

A Nigerian doctor told us: "I had been struggling for years building and running the hospital but after my visit I came back with more vigor and more determination to succeed. . . . I went away leaving an ill-equipped hospital of forty-eight beds. . . . I now have an institution of 110 beds equipped to cope with any emergency." A veterinarian in Japan said: "I introduced Veterinary Public Health, which is a new field. Particularly, I emphasized veterinary contributions to food inspection and prevention of tuberculosis (for human beings and animals) and rabies."

An official at the highest level in Colombia cited an impressive list: "My studies in the United States permitted the development of a series of activities which would not have occurred to me without these studies. Among these activities are: (1) forming ICETEX (Colombia's overseas training program); (2) forming the Public Administration School; (3) forming the Civil Service Administration Department; (4) forming the Educational Bank; (5) integral planning of education, accepted not only in Colombia but in various countries of Latin America; and (6) [arranging] international finance for education."

In fact, in almost all of the developing countries, by far the majority of all grantees named some form of benefit to their home country as one of the valuable results of their United States experience.

To be sure, perhaps half the grantees report problems and difficulties in putting their new ideas into practice, chiefly in the less developed nations—"lack of facilities," "lack of funds" or "indifference of colleagues." Others cited the "different circumstances and attitudes" of their own country as difficult obstacles to new ideas. A teacher in the Philippines told us, " 'Stateside' ideas were obnoxious to my principal." A British child psychologist said that after studying in the United States, "I sometimes feel now that I am talking a different language when meeting other clinic workers." But in general nearly half the grantees cited no problems in putting into practice the new ideas they had learned in the United States.

In the developing countries the great majority of the grantees said they had many long-range goals for applying in their own countries things they had learned. Most of these goals will benefit their professions and their communities at large—such as raising the level of education, health and economic well-being, promoting technical development, even raising the level of public interest in self-improvement.

Among the prominent (non-grantee) citizens interviewed in the grantees' home countries, about half had observed an impact of the exchange program on the community, and almost all of these described the effect as a favorable one. In Turkey, Ghana, and South Africa, one of the beneficial effects most often cited was an "increased sense of civic responsibility," or a "spread and reinforcement of democratic ideas and procedures." A few of the non-grantee leaders mentioned negative results, such as that the grantees fail to share with their communities the benefits they derived or to adapt suitably what they learned. But these respondents were small minorities—2% or less.

In sum, it is clear that the exchange program has benefited the home communities of the foreign grantees, certainly in some immediate ways, and undoubtedly in ways as yet impossible to measure.

In Setting Up a Channel of Communication

In our survey, evidence is substantial that the exchange program is effective in spreading information about the United States and its people and about the "home country" well beyond the grantee himself.

Not only are most grantees in an excellent position to communicate information, but many are very actively engaged in doing so. During their stay in the United States about three-fourths of all grantees gave talks, in person or on radio or television. They spoke generally about their own country and thus helped Americans expand their own horizons. Some of the grantees were shocked by how little Americans knew of other countries, but the great majority were gratified at the very high degree of interest Americans showed in learning about foreign countries.

On their return home, about two-thirds of the grantees gave talks to their countrymen, mostly about the United States, with special emphasis on the American character, the American "way of life," American education and scientific development.

Just under a third of all grantees, either while they were in the United States or on their return home, reported writing one or more publications, most of these dealing with special aspects of the American character and scene, as well as with their own professional subjects. About 12% of the grantees have four or more publications to their credit. A bibliography of the writings of the returned grantees queried in our study alone runs to 106 pages. Earlier studies of the exchange program confirm that similar high proportions of grantees, both American and foreign, transmit to their countrymen their views and experience through talks and articles.

American Embassies throughout the world have stressed to us, and American leaders have confirmed, the exchange program's effectiveness in expanding personal contacts and personal outlook, "in setting up a current of contact between the United States and other countries." "Broadened personal contacts," "broadened perspectives," a "generally expanded viewpoint" were cited both by returned grantees and distinguished leaders abroad as some of the most significant values resulting from the exchange program.

The great majority of the returned grantees keep up their contacts with friends and professional colleagues over the years. Most keep in touch with at least two; nearly half with eight or more contacts. Earlier studies have similarly shown that the very large majority of all returned grantees, both American and foreign, have kept up correspondence with oveseas friends and professional colleagues.

Clearly then the exchange program is effective in setting up a "current of contact" between the people of other nations and ourselves. To quote an experienced Public Affairs Officer, "It keeps a window open to another world."

In Serving as an Important Aspect of American Foreign Policy

If we were to make the mistake of supposing that the primary purpose of the exchange program is to serve narrowly political ends, the effectiveness of the whole program would be seriously undermined. It is not that kind of program, and in imagining it to be so we would defeat our own ends. Yet in a broader sense the program can support American foreign policy.

There is no doubt in the minds of most of our informants, or in the minds of the Commission itself, that the exchange program has in fact served the broad interests of the United States in its relations with other countries. To the extent that it has increased mutual understanding it has certainly served those interests. To the extent that it has dispelled misconceptions about America and Americans it has, in a very important way, served our total international objectives. It has served them also to the extent that it has demonstrated favorably, as we have just seen, American character and achievement. Further, to the extent that it has provided education and opportunity for young people of developing countries, it has served our intent to foster independent and viable nations dedicated to the social and economic advancement of their people in a framework of freedom.

Thus, the relation of the exchange program to the conduct of America's foreign policy is inevitably a close one. Indeed some key officials in Washington and in United States posts overseas find that the exchange program, precisely because it does provide a direct means of creating better understanding of the American people and their aims and achievements, has become a significant aspect of foreign policy. One top-ranking government official intimately concerned with foreign affairs, told us "the whole field of exchange of persons is among the most important aspects of United States foreign policy." Another called the program "an indispensable—although not the decisive—part of American foreign policy."

Overseas, the United States Ambassador in Japan, for example, calls it "one of the most important ways in which we can help influence moods as well as public opinion and create a sympathetic understanding of the American position." Many other United States Embassy spokesmen abroad strongly support this view. In fact, in some nations, where United States relationships or the country's own development will, it is believed, be in a crucial phase in the next five years, U.S. Embassy personnel feel that the exchange program has an enormous potential for helping them deal with these difficult situations during this critical period.

Many of these officials both at home and abroad recognize that the benefits accruing to United States foreign policy are mostly felt over the long term—in the incalculable ways in which a greater understanding, a clearer picture of the United States and its people, help a former grantee on his return home to make fairer, clearer, possibly more favorable, judgments of America and its acts and policies.

This better understanding may, and frequently does, reflect itself more perceptibly, possibly more quickly, if the grantee is a person of prominence and of influence on public opinion. Since the program's beginning about a fourth of all foreign grantees, or 12,348 people—intellectuals, leaders and other key persons—have come to the United States on so-called "leader" grants. About 10% of these leaders are "V.I.P.'s" in the official sense; but all are persons of high qualifications and rank in their home countries and represent many fields of interest. Other types of grants in the exchange program also, of course, reach top-ranking persons in many fields.

United States Embassies abroad testify particularly to the effectiveness of exchange of such high-level persons in fostering United States policy objectives in the broad sense. Here the United States Ambassador in Japan bears citing again: "I believe that the wide intellectual contacts developed between Japanese and Americans since the end of the American occupation a decade ago are one of the major reasons why we are at present witnessing a gradual shift of Japanese attitudes and opinions away from doctrinaire Marxism toward a position that we would regard as more desirable. . . . While the exchange program is only a part of this intellectual contact between Japan and the United States, it has been and will continue to be a very important part of this key activity." It is worth adding that in our 20-country study, 56% of all returned grantees in Japan—far more than the 20-country average, cited "increased understanding of Americans" as the chief value of their United States visit.

There is another way in which the exchange program bears a significant relationship to American foreign policy. That is the extent to which it brings the American people into direct contact with the world outside the United States. Obviously, it has enormously increased the number of Americans who have direct personal knowledge and competence about countries overseas. In all, 21,412 Americans—not only in the teaching fields but in the widest range of professions—have studied abroad under the State Department's exchange program between 1949 and 1962. And beyond these are the tens of thousands of other Americans who, as volunteer hosts, as fellow students or colleagues, have been brought in personal touch with other countries by the foreign visitors to the United States. As one head of a volunteer hospitality group put it: "The exchange program's chief accomplishment is that it has involved the American people more deeply in foreign affairs than ever before." As another said; "We have never before felt so close to our government and its foreign policy; we have a sense of partnership."

In sum, then, we find that the exchange program has fostered and supported United States' broadest long-term international objectives, and can be rightfully considered today a basic aspect of America's relations with other parts of the world.

Other Evidences of Effectiveness

The Commission feels that one of the most important signs of effectiveness of the program has been its catalytic effect—in bringing about significant changes in approaches, in stimulating development both abroad and in the United States. Documentation lags far behind the many such cases that exist.

One of the most obvious, but perhaps least recognized instance is the great number of exchange programs that have been spawned or at least encouraged by the success of the pioneering experience of the Fulbright and Smith-Mundt exchange programs. The exchange programs under the National Defense Education Act, of the National Science Foundation, of the National Aeronautics and Space Agency and of the National Institutes of Health are in a sense the children of the educational exchange program; they appear to us to be excellent testimony to its effectiveness, as well as to confirm the validity of the exchange principle.

The exchange program fed an early interest in such studies in countries overseas through exchange of professors in American literature, government and history. In Britian and Sweden these courses on the United States have, according to a Commission member's recent personal inquiry there and the reports of our Embassies, been extraordinarily effective in opening a largely closed window on the American scene.

Other examples of the catalytic effect of the program show how only a few people—sometimes only one—who have studied new methods in the United States have often been the stimulus needed to introduce new techniques, start new institutions. Some illustrative cases have been reported to the Department by our Embassies. In the Philippines for instance, the President of Mindanao College on a specialist visit to the United States became deeply interested in the work-study system of Berea College. On his return he started a prototype college and won both government and private support to carry on this idea which has such relevance to Philippine conditions.

In Guatemala, over a period of the last four years, the entire teaching staff of the San Carlos Dental Faculty has been brought to the United States to observe teaching practices in the United States. Adopting widespread changes, their school has now become a model for other dental institutions in Central America.

In Belgium, a former student grantee, drawing upon his American experience and associations, this year helped form the Belgian equivalent of a Peace Corps, which registers and screens Belgian students interested in working in developing countries and helps obtain such positions for them.

In Rhodesia, Mr. Jairos Jiri, the President of the African Society for the Blind and Physically Handicapped, came to the United States, under the foreign specialist program, for a five-month study of American rehabilitation programs. On his return, he announced plans "to take away all the blind and physically handicapped Africans from the city streets" into workshops where they could be trained to be self-supporting. The Southern Rhodesian government granted a substantial sum toward accomplishing his plans for expansion—construction of a school for handicapped children in Guelo.

The American Consul describes Mr. Jiri's first visit to the American Consulate on his return from the United States: "Mr. Jiri was so moved he was at a loss for words to express his feelings about the trip. After several minutes of silence, he began to explain with tears running down his cheeks: 'I cannot tell you how much this trip has meant to me and my people. I can only say that I will never forget what you have done. Your people in America have an open heart and true heart. I cannot thank you enough.' Unable to continue, he sat gently clapping his hands, an African custom denoting pleasure and gratitude."

From all the evidence brought before us and the experience of our Commission members, we must conclude then that the past program as a whole—without reference to any one type of grant or grantee—has been effective in serving the many purposes conceived for it.

This is not to say that there have been no exceptions, no failures, no gaps, no weaknesses in the program. There have been. Out of 53,000 foreign grantees brought to the United States since 1949 under the Department of State exchange programs, there were bound to be and there were some cases of poor selection, of bad programing and placement; some unhappy mix-ups on tours and schedules, some unfortunate grantee experiences particularly in racial discrimination. There were some instances of grantees who left with—possibly came with—negative, even hostile, attitudes toward the United States and its people, or who for various reasons were unable to benefit from their experience here: We are aware of these instances and deplore them. But they are the fractional minority; the balance of evidence is overwhelmingly on the side of success.

At the same time, the Commission, and virtually all the people we consulted in our study, feel that the programs of the future could be made even more effective.

We present therefore our principal recommendations for strengthening and improving the program. Some of these recommendations apply to the program conducted by the Department of State. Others may apply equally to exchanges carried on by other government departments and by private agencies and sponsors. For the Commission feels it must keep ever before it the fact that the State Department's programs are but a small part—less than 5%—of the great flow of exchange today taking place between the United States and the rest of the world. These other exchange programs share some of the same problems and have made some of the same mistakes. All are equally concerned that their exchange efforts be made most fully effective for the grantee and for his country, and for the American people.

III. Suggestions for Improvement

The Foreign Grantee

There is general agreement from all parts of our study that the selection of foreign grantees can be bettered, both as to kind and quality.

First, as to kind. Many recommendations have been made for broadening the categories of foreign grantees chosen, as a means of increasing the effectiveness of the program. What is suggested is not that any significant new categories be chosen—the scope is already wide, but that considerably more emphasis be placed upon certain types of grantees who have as yet had relatively little attention.

Obviously this whole question of what types of grantees are best can only be judged on a country-by-country basis. But we feel there are some principles that can be applied to the program as a whole.

Our survey shows that there is considerable feeling, which the Commission shares, that more young potential leaders, and more young adults generally, should be chosen as grantees, especially from the developing countries. In our 20-country study, only 15% of the people chosen for "leader" grants in the past have been under 35 at the time of their grant to the United States. Even most teachers and lecturers coming to the United States have been over 35.

The Commission, and a significant group of the informed persons responding to our study, feel that, looking ahead over the future, and particularly to those newly independent countries where many of today's leaders are themselves young men, every effort should be made to identify and select those "on the way up." It is this group whom this country should particularly enable to become acquainted with the United States, the American people and policies with which they may well one day have to deal, certainly to understand. It is this group above all who should be helped to develop the broadened outlook, the professional skills and self-confidence which former grantees testify are the significant benefits of their United States experience.

Further, almost all sources in our survey make clear that in the past foreign grantees, under both private and governmental exchange programs, have tended to be drawn too often from favored economic and social groups—the well-to-do, the well born, residents of the capital city, the political "ins," the people in closest touch with the American colony, those who tend to be pro-American, and those with "connections." This is said to apply chiefly in some of the developing nations where, historically, education has been available largely to the urban elite.

We consider this a very serious and significant criticism of an American exchange program. Social ferment is taking place today in almost all developing countries, with the emergence of new classes, the spread of education, and the rising aspirations for social change and social justice. An American exchange program should, we feel, make a particular effort to discover and give significant opportunity to the most able, active and promising of the rising "have-nots" as well as to the "haves." To do so is in the American tradition, and reflects the long history of our own experience in making education available to all. There is moreover some indication from earlier studies of exchange students, that grantees from the less privileged groups are more strongly motivated and work harder to succeed in studies abroad. In many developing countries, moreover, the have-nots are precisely that element in the population most vulnerable to Communist subversion, and so most in need of a clear first-hand view of the democratic alternative.

Indeed, a few of these have-nots may already be those whom the dominant class or political party calls "radicals," "socialists" or "left-wingers." In some cases they may even have already flirted with the Communists or been inclined to sympathize with Communists in the belief that Communism offers the only means of bringing about social change and social justice. In some countries the most articulate and politically effective elements in the population may be university students with left-wing connections. They may be—or believe they are—"anti-American."

In the Commission's view, and in that of some of the most discerning respondents to our study, we should select more of the non-Communist dissidents or "left-wingers" particularly from the developing countries, for exchange visits to the United States. Obviously, there will be some countries in which political tensions are so grave as to rule out the possibility of choosing political dissidents. But where it is possible and acceptable it should be done. We must seek to show these people that there is a democratic road to social reform and progress, and assure that both the have-nots and the dissident may see the benefits of the "continuing revolution," the rapid social and economic change taking place in the United States under a democratic system.

Failure to do so would be a significant criticism of an American exchange program. In this program as in its other overseas programs, America must identify itself with the forces of constructive change, of hope, of progress, of peaceful social and economic modernization, if it is to live up to its own revolutionary traditions and offer hope to an impatient world.

For it is necessary to emphasize that when the United States, as it does and must, urges other nations to bring about social and economic progress for all their people, it is exporting a profoundly revolutionary idea. Universal free education, basic land and income tax reforms, social security measures, rural development for impoverished rural people have been key steps in the revolution which has been taking place in the past century in the United States. This continuing American revolution is very much more radical than any that has been accomplished in almost any other part of the world. When America encourages developing nations to initiate steps similar to these, it is inviting them to make profound changes in their accustomed way of life. Yet America cannot hope to help them facilitate these reforms unless it associates itself with those elements in the population that are sufficiently vigorous (and restless) to back such changes.

In the past, certain administrative and policy factors have played a part in limiting the exchange program to certain elements in the population. One has been the English-language requirement for all candidates. The have-nots of the developing societies are those least likely to have had opportunity to learn English well in good schools. Another obstacle has been the U.S. immigration and visa restrictions on admitting persons of left-wing associations.

We warmly commend the recent efforts of the State Department to ease the English-language requirements for otherwise exceptionally able and promising persons, and to make special arrangements for those whose political associations or views do not meet the letter of our immigration laws, but whom it is important to invite to the U.S.

MORE WOMEN GRANTEES?

There was frequent suggestion in our study that more emphasis, particularly in the underdeveloped countries, should be put on selecting more women, especially women leaders. In the past, although about a fifth of all foreign grantees coming to the United States have been women, very few of these have been leaders. In 1962, for example, only 43 women were chosen as grantees from the whole of Africa, and only 15 of these were leaders. From all the Near East and South Asia in 1962, there were only 11 women leader grantees, from the Far East only 13. We agree that the program should seize more opportunities to bring women leaders to the United States, particularly from countries where, as in Africa and the Near and Far East, women have long been under social and economic, even political handicaps. We understand that those responsible for the exchange program in the Department have recently urged our posts abroad, especially in the developing countries, to make a greater effort to select more women, and more of those who can teach and lead on their return. We commend this suggestion.

ADMISSION STANDARDS

There is evidence in our study that some United States educational institutions have relaxed their admission standards for foreign students. The Commission feels it is a grave mistake to relax standards, and in fact a disservice to the students themselves.

At the same time, a good many of the informants in our study believe that State Department and other exchange programs should offer some opportunities for promising young people who do not fully qualify for college-level work. In those developing countries which have few high schools and even fewer higher institutions, there are undoubtedly many such young people with considerable talent and potential leadership. Since America's educational system is so diverse, ways can and should be explored to offer some training appropriate to their needs, perhaps in the junior colleges, perhaps in technical and vocational institutions, perhaps in some specially planned courses of study. To do so would again be distinctly in the American tradition. The men and women who built and led the United States to its present high level of development were certainly not all college graduates.

ENGLISH-LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

In the past, the potential grantee's knowledge of English has been an important criterion in selection of those who are to study in the United States either as student or research scholars. Some observers have argued that no student grantee should be selected who is not fully competent in the language.

This view has recently been undergoing radical revision. It has been realized, as noted earlier, that rigorous requirements for English-language competence have narrowed the choice of foreign students and slanted it heavily to the side of upper social and economic groups.

To correct this bias, various experimental efforts have been made over the past year or two by the State Department. In those countries where English-teaching facilities have been few—notably in Latin America and former French colonies, the State Department has now given its Embassies and the local Fulbright Commissions permission to waive the strict English requirement for potential grantees who are otherwise talented and promising. Language training is then given those grantees on their arrival in the United States. This is done prior to their taking up academic studies, in concentrated courses, in some cases lasting up to 2 months, and is continued on a part-time basis during the college year. (Under the 1961 Fulbright-Hays Act, these language-training courses are also open to foreign students who come to the United States under private auspices.) The Commission strongly commends this approach for every country where the English-language requirement may be limiting the choice of grantees. Although two months of intensive training is adequate only for those who are already well started on the language, the principle is sound.

At the same time, while we agree that the requirements should be relaxed *where such relaxation is essential* to achieve certain objectives, we also strongly recommend that adequate time be provided for intensive language training before the grantee undertakes college or university work. Grave errors have been made in this respect in the past, particularly with non-government-sponsored students. The Commission commends and encourages the establishment of new language training facilities overseas as well as in this country; we believe, however, that intensive training in the United States is most effective.

FIELD SELECTION CENTERS

As to quality of foreign grantees, United States Government-sponsored students appear, from our study, to be more carefully selected than are foreign students as a whole. The more serious problems of quality involve non-government-sponsored students. While technically we are concerned in this report only with students sponsored by the State Department exchange program, we are aware that they constitute only about 5% of all foreign students on United States campuses, and that in the broadest sense we should be concerned with the quality of all students who come to this country for study.

A student sponsored by the exchange program is chosen by a local Bi-National Commission or a bi-national selection group, with the participation of our Cultural Affairs Officer or other relevant officers at our Embassy in his country. But in the case of students not sponsored by our government, United States colleges and universities have difficulty in appraising the character of an applicant's previous training in his home country schools and colleges, since foreign educational standards and educational systems often vary widely from those of the United States. Further, most colleges need a personal interview to determine certain aspects of the applicant's quality and maturity. Since personal interviews have been largely impossible, and other selection procedures unavailable, some unqualified applicants have been brought to the United States.

One method suggested to avoid such errors in selection is the setting up of field or regional selection centers under private auspices which, acting on behalf of the universities and other private exchange agencies, can help bring a foreign student together with the college or university best designed to suit his personal and professional needs. A few such centers have recently come into being at the initiative of various private organizations, such as the African-American Institute and the Institute of International Education.

Some mechanism of this sort is clearly necessary. The Commission recommends that government agencies interested in the exchange process join with private agencies in establishing a world-wide network of these field centers adequate to America's needs for the next decade and beyond. Such selection centers would, it is proposed, prepare or otherwise make available to foreign applicants full information on the kind and character of various United States educational institutions, on what scholarships are available, on living conditions, costs and similar pertinent information. The centers would also furnish United States colleges and universities with information on the educational system and standards of the student's country, as well as with information on the student's own qualifications.

These centers should, we feel, be under private sponsorship, perhaps under the sponsorship of a consortium of private groups. They should serve all government agencies that wish to make use of them, and also serve as many private programs as possible. Insofar as possible, these centers should offer adequate facilities to upgrade standards of selection for those programs which now do not have such means for maintaining proper standards.

Some sort of arrangements would have to be worked out so that these centers (which would be set up regionally rather than in every country) would complement and not usurp the functions of the local Bi-National Commissions already established or to be established.

ORIENTATION, PLACEMENT, PROGRAMING

In our 20-country study the grantees in general expressed strong and warm satisfaction with the programing and handling of their exchange experience, often in glowing terms. When specifically asked, only small proportions could or did name anything which had been of "least value" to them in their visit. Comments such as these were common: from a British leader: "The whole period spent in the USA was of value and I cannot think of a wasted moment"; or from a Rhodesian specialist: "With the utmost honesty and deliberation I cannot recall a single experience that was not of value or interest in some way or other."

We specified however that our 20-country study should probe into various aspects of the grantees' program in the United States, and get frank comments on where the program fell short, and what improvements should be made. Here the former grantees were exceedingly helpful to us, and their comments pointed up problems and bore out criticisms that have repeatedly come to us from other sources in our survey—criticisms which the Commission shares.

Orientation.—Sizeable numbers of the grantees in our 20-country study—perhaps a fourth of them or more, and from both advanced and developing countries—felt that the orientation and information they had received prior to their visit could be improved. Students in particular mentioned the need for more information. We believe therefore that one appropriate point for orientation is at the field selection centers, which will in any case be counseling the students on their choice of college and training, and could well include counseling on the United States and its customs on and off campus.

A substantial proportion of grantees, from 15% to over 40% in our 20-country study, felt that more time should be allowed to prepare for their trip. We know from inquiry of our Embassy posts and other sources that one of the major reasons for short notice to grantees is the delay in appropriations by Congress for each fiscal year. Last-minute planning and notice to many grantees is inevitable under this handicap.

Academic Placement.—Although the overwhelming proportion of returned grantees in our study reported that the most valuable result of their trip was its effect on their work, 16% of them tell us that their academic program and training were unsatisfactory, and about a fourth tell us the quality of training could be improved.

Proportions up to 40% reported that the educational institution they attended was less than ideal, although relatively few—about 5%—considered it actually inadequate to their needs. A significant number—from about 10% to 35%—felt that the academic program given should be more tailored to their own needs and those of their home country. Even more of the grantees, particularly those from the developing countries, felt the need for on-the-job training.

A Nigerian hospital matron told us: "The studies planned for me—were of least value to me. Although I had a basic British nursing education, I was not allowed to do a post-graduate course in administration or public health, which made me feel that I haven't really achieved anything substantial." A Kenya student of labor relations commented: "I felt I needed some direct contact with the trade union movement in the United States. I theoretically learned quite a great deal about them, but the mental experience could have been invaluably enriched by direct contacts even with some local unions." A Philippine bacteriologist said, "First of all, grantees should be informed of United States schools which are 'tops' in the specialized fields they are going to study. All pertinent facts should be provided so that the grantee can make a wise choice."

Correct academic placement is an absolute necessity for a successful student experience. While, in general, government-sponsored students appear to be better placed than non-government students, our survey clearly shows there is room for improvement on both sides.

One problem is that our Embassy posts abroad, and possibly some of our Bi-National Commissions, have inadequate and often out-of-date information on admission standards, scholarship opportunities, and academic programs of American universities. While there are some prepared guides to selection of colleges, many of them are not too helpful to people overseas. The Institute of International Education (IIE) however, has collected and uses valuable up-to-date information of this kind. It is possible that with governmental help the IIE could make this information available to our Embassy posts and the Bi-National Commissions, as well as to the field selection centers already set up. One of the obvious merits of increasing the number of field centers is that they could not only improve selection but also help prevent mismatches of student and institution.

U.S. universities themselves have on the whole done a remarkable job in advising foreign students on their training courses. According to our study, grantees at United States educational institutions have found university personnel "of great help" to their United States visit. Grantees from the less developed nations also frequently cite the foreign student advisor as being "of great help," as well as other persons at the universities. These advisors, now working in about 1,400 universities and colleges over the country, have done a splendid job and deserve considerably more recognition as providing an essential service in universities taking foreign students.

Student Emergencies.—Surprisingly few—2%—of the returned grantees in the 20-country study say that they encountered difficulties in language, food, climate, housing and the like. But other of our sources, particularly the foreign student advisors, raise the question of foreign student emergencies—serious illness for example, or other personal or financial emergencies for which no prior provision has been made. We feel that student illness can best be handled by requiring all foreign students, as part of their admission procedures, to take out major medical insurance. Both American and foreign grantees under the State Department exchange program are now covered by such insurance. A few universities already require it for non-government-sponsored foreign students. We suggest that all universities and colleges do so. For those foreign students here under programs sponsored by their own government, each student's home country might be asked to pay the insurance fee.

After considerable discussion of other student emergencies, the Commission feels that the government should avoid becoming involved in a large and ill-defined welfare program of relieving students in emergency financial situations. We suggest, further, that the student's home government be encouraged to accept some responsibility in all cases of student emergency.

Programing the Grantee's Visit.—In our 20-country study, roughly half of the grantees—and even more from the developing countries—felt that the time spent in the United States was too short; sizeable numbers felt that the amount of grant funds allowed was too small to permit them to travel adequately in the United States or take advantage of various opportunities open to them.

A significant proportion of the leader and specialist grantees, particularly those from Africa and Latin America, said their tour program was too crowded, there was too much planned for them, that they needed more time in a given place, more time for travel, more time to themselves, more visits to American homes and families. This criticism is substantiated by nearly all sources in our survey; the overscheduled, "whirlwind," big-city tour, particularly for leaders here on short visits, has been widely criticized.

Some of the blame for overscheduling lies with the grantees themselves who want to see "everything" even on a short tour. But the contract agencies which plan tour programs carry the main responsibility. The leader grant which, from all our evidence, serves such a signally valuable purpose, is expensive. If it is done at all, it should be done well. The Commission feels that there is a very urgent need for more hand-tailoring of the short-term leader tour programs, for more detailed planning with the leader himself in the light of his special interests, for more careful routing of visitors outside the big cities and well-worn circuits, for more visits to smaller American towns and in American homes, longer stays at each stop, and far more allowance of free time for reflection. There is also real need for more visits to centers of constructive change in race relations in the South.

More Contacts With Americans.—To a foreign visitor of whatever rank, the American character and the American people are the most illuminating discovery, and America's greatest asset. From virtually every part of our survey comes overwhelming testimony that visits with American people and their homes and families are one of the most effective and memorable parts of a grantee's United States visit.

The majority of all grantees in the 20-country study suggest increasing personal contacts with Americans and personal visits to American homes. Grantees from the less developed nations feel particularly strongly the need to see and visit more Americans. African grantees express especial interest in meeting Negro families as well as others. These comments point up the very real contribution to be made by the many private volunteer hospitality organizations in the United States which have already done a remarkable job in entertaining foreign visitors. They point up too the need for all agencies planning tour programs, and all universities with foreign students, to redouble their efforts to assure adequate time and opportunity for person-to-person visits with a widely diversified cross-section of Americans and their families.

FOLLOW-UP

One of the points that came up consistently in all parts of the study is that the program is weak on follow-up of foreign grantees who have returned to their home country.

While U.S. Embassies use various means of maintaining contact with grantees, our 20-country study shows that half or more of the returned grantees do not know what the United States Embassy does to assist them, and an additional small percentage say flatly that nothing is currently being done.

The Commission feels that some form of follow-up would add to the long-term effectiveness of the program. One general principle, it seems to us, might successfully guide follow-up activities. This is that professional interest of the returned grantees is a very strong bond—far stronger than loyalty to a particular United States university or to other "U.S. alumni" in the same country. For many of them, it is almost a lifeline to their professional world. Teachers, for example, report an exceptionally high interest in having the United States Embassy or the Bi-National Commission provide continuing access to professional materials for them. Successful follow-up might be built on professional lines, possibly through developing professional associations of returnees or, where appropriate, through increased use of individual selection of special books and periodicals for specialists in particular subjects.

The American Grantee

Between 1949 and 1962, 21,372 persons—roughly a third of all grantees in the total Department of State exchange program—were Americans. About half of these were students, a fourth of them lecturers and research scholars, about a sixth were teachers.

From the evidence before us, supplemented with our own observation and experience, there have been, as all agree, American grantees of very high caliber indeed. Moreover, in our study in countries abroad, the leading citizens interviewed on the whole had "predominantly positive" impressions of the American grantees who came to their country—favorable impressions of their professional competence, of their willingness to adapt to the people and customs of another country.

Yet, in the view of the knowledgeable Americans who responded to our study, and of the Commission itself, we must conclude with regret that the quality of American professors and lecturers is not consistently as high as it should be.

The most important and universally cited reason is the financial inadequacy of the grant itself. The salary scales developed for use by the Bi-National Commissions abroad and in use up to the end of 1962, were drawn up originally in 1946–48. There have been some increases made in these scales since that time, but they have been too few and too small to keep up with rising costs abroad or with the rapid (and long overdue) advance in United States academic salaries. Consequently, accepting foreign study grants has in recent years meant a considerable financial sacrifice, especially for professors of the top rank. Even younger professors have found the costs of overseas visits prohibitive. In general, it is estimated that accepting a grant means a personal outlay of $2,500–$3,000 a year beyond the grant funds. "It's gotten to the point," one Fulbright professor in France told a member of our Commission, "where good people no longer apply for a Fulbright grant unless they have a sabbatical to go with it."

Even more serious is the failure of the grant to include travel costs for the professor's dependents. A professor must either leave his family at home, or be willing and able to draw upon his own savings for their travel costs or get his home university to supplement the grant. One young professor in Europe told us he had to borrow over $1,300 to bring his family with him. Another, a research professor, told us that he had been forced to teach "on the side" to make ends meet, even though doing so is technically against the rules. Understandably, very few professors are willing or able to make such arrangements. Nor, we believe, should the United States Government expect them to do so.

The number of first-rate professors is short in the best of circumstances. But the Commission is confident that, if American professors know that they can break even rather than lose money in accepting a grant, more first-class men will become available.

In recognition of this problem, the State Department late in 1962 suggested to our Embassies that the local Bi-National Commissions consider reviewing the entire problem of adequacy of stipends for all lecture grantees.

We commend this effort, but we would go even further. We recommend that stipends be substantially increased even if it is necessary to cut back sharply on the number of grants. Further, if the Bi-National Commissions do not want to introduce a rate of pay for visitors which exceeds that for the home country professors, we believe it is not beyond the limits of ingenuity to devise a system whereby American grantees have their stipends "topped up" with dollar grants which bring them to a generally accepted American standard of recompense.

A serious financial obstacle will however remain—assured payment of the costs of dependents' travel. Here, the only real remedy lies with

Congress, to appropriate the funds for this purpose as already authorized in the Fulbright-Hays Act.

Recruitment.—The recruiting agency used by the Department—the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils—has so far generally followed the policy of open competition for recruiting most of the American professors as well as research scholars for overseas lectureships. We urge that the Conference Board recruit more of its professor candidates directly, reaching out to select those of highest caliber rather than relying wholly on the uneven quality that may come in by open competition alone. This is especially important in some fields in which top-quality men are known to be scarce.

We also believe that requests for American professors should not be filled at all unless they can be filled by a first-rate person. There is no reason for filling every request regardless of quality; rather, there is every reason against it.

There is a final consideration. A good many of the posts to which Fulbright professors go are not such as to challenge first-class men. The Commission even uncovered a few examples in which the foreign university really did not welcome the visiting American, nor attempt to integrate his course into the regular degree program. In one instance, at the Sorbonne, a brilliant American history professor found only 6 students in his class because it was not integrated into the regular curriculum. At a Belgian university, another outstanding American professor had only 2 students turn up, for the same reason. Unless the university demonstrates that it can create a situation in which the visiting American can function effectively, no grants should be made available.

One of the principal demands for American professors and lecturers is for programs in "American studies" in overseas universities. American studies have been started by many countries, principally and perhaps most successfully in Europe. The Commission felt that the importance and special character of the American studies part of the exchange program warranted a special review aside from this overall report. This review, covering the important developments and experience in this field, is now in preparation and will be ready for publication shortly.

IV. Administration

In our survey we have made some inquiry, though by no means a comprehensive one, into some aspects of administration of the program which have a particular bearing on its effectiveness.

Relations With Private Contract Agencies

When grantees arrive in the United States, their placement in selected universities or the programing of their tours is handled, with some exceptions, by one of the several private agencies acting under contract to the State Department. The State Department has used the services and facilities of these agencies at the express wish of Congress, as embodied in all legislation establishing or affecting the exchange program.

The Commission feels that these private organizations have made an immensely important contribution to the field of exchange, and commends the Department on the constructive relationships it has developed in enlisting their support in administering essential phases of the program. Many of these agencies have done their job very well. Some of them have been in this work for many years and have amassed tremendous experience and competence. The Institute of International Education, for example, which is to some extent the prototype for many of these organizations, began its work in international exchange nearly a half century ago. But the tremendous increase in exchange over recent years has put heavy demands on these organizations. Not all of them, despite their extremely important work, have wholly succeeded in adapting to the enormous, even explosive, growth in private as well as governmental exchange programs over the past two decades.

For example, while in our 20-country study most of the grantees found these agencies "of great help" in planning and programing their visits to the United States, students and to some extent research scholars were consistently less satisfied than others with the help they received. There was also, as we have seen, a disturbing number of grantees who found the academic institutions in which they were placed unsatisfactory; there were also short-term visitors who, as we have also seen, found their tour schedules too crammed, rushed and superficial.

In view of the very important role the private contract agencies have in programing and placement, and the wide conviction—which the Commission shares—that the job should continue to be done by private agencies, strong and competent organizations are essential. The Commission recommends that a fresh appraisal be made of the most important of these agencies to weigh their effectiveness and examine the directions in which growth would be most fruitful.

The Role of the Cultural Affairs Officer

The success of the educational and cultural affairs program depends heavily on the quality of the Cultural Affairs Officer (the "CAO") in U.S. Embassies abroad. Except for those posts which have special educational exchange officers, it is the CAO who carries out the exchange program in each country, acting under the Public Affairs Officer of the United States Information Agency (USIA). Certainly every attempt should be made to recruit the best men and women to serve as Cultural Affairs Officers and to create the conditions that will make it possible for them to function effectively.

The evidence is clear that not enough attention has been given to the quality, the role, status, and advancement of the CAO. It is often said, for example, that from a career standpoint, a CAO assignment is a blind alley for a State Department Foreign Service Officer. The Cultural Affairs Officer is also said to be unduly burdened with a miscellany of voluntary visitors and paper work, and thus hampered in accomplishing his cultural duties effectively. Whether or not these things are so, a good many CAOs believe them to be so.

From many diverse sources in our study, the well-worn question has come up repeatedly—whether field supervision by USIA of the CAO and of the cultural and educational program as a whole is in the best long-term interests of the program. We believe that this whole question of the management of the exchange program in the field under the aegis of USIA, and of the quality and character of personnel required, needs considerable study. The recent report of the Committee on Foreign Affairs Personnel (the so-called Herter Committee), which made many provocative proposals on tri-partite personnel management in foreign service, did not discuss specifically the question of the CAO's relationship to the information services, and it is important that this problem be carefully pursued. The newly recognized importance of human resources in development suggests that perhaps a new approach, not tied to the performance or traditional functions of the past, may be called for, or at the very least might be a fruitful line of inquiry for adapting the program more fully to the needs of the future.

Financial Problems

Testimony is almost universal from all sources of our survey that the educational and cultural exchange program as a whole has been underfinanced. "Fiscal starvation" was cited as one of the greatest weaknesses of the program, and the Commission is impressed with the evidence that funds have been woefully short of what could and should be used for maximum effectiveness.

We recognize that there is for all United States overseas and domestic activities a tremendous competition for funds. The closest scrutiny of all programs is essential to determine the most effective, the most deserving. But it is also necessary, it seems to us, to determine whether, if the exchange program is agreed upon and considered worth doing at all, it is not harmed and its effectiveness greatly reduced by under-financing.

Further, late appropriations and emphasis on short-term financing create almost insuperable obstacles to sensible administration of the exchange program. Both force hasty last-minute choice of grantees and prevent considered long-term planning of effective programs. To remedy this situation is the responsibility of the Congress.

Moreover, a considerable portion—in the past two years roughly half—of the funds allocated to the program are in foreign currencies generated in certain countries by the sale of surplus war goods and commodities. Educational exchange is unquestionably a valuable and important use of such currencies, and we commend their use for this purpose. But care must be taken to guard against skewing programs to fit availability of foreign currencies owed to or owned by the United States.

This whole subject of use of foreign currencies is extremely complex, and is outside the immediate scope of this report. In view, however, of the importance of using foreign currencies, of the real danger of skewing programs to fit available currencies, and of the immensely complicated problems involved, the Commission feels that the whole subject warrants early and careful analysis.

There are a number of points at which under-financing is a specific problem. One of these is the failure to provide funds for dependents' travel for American grantees, an urgent matter we have discussed elsewhere, with the recommendation that Congress take immediate steps to remove this major obstacle to securing first-quality American grantees.

Another financial problem that has deeply disturbed the Commission is the ridiculous inadequacy of official hospitality funds allocated for use by our State Department educational and cultural affairs people either in the United States or in the Embassies abroad. The present allowance—$1,000 for a year's hospitality in the United States for over 5,400 foreign grantees sponsored by the State Department alone—is so low as to be undignified and a constant source of embarrassment. The major burden of hospitality for foreign visitors is borne, and properly borne, by a vast network of volunteer private individuals and agencies. There are, however, occasions—necessary occasions—when, in keeping with the interests and dignity of the United States, foreign visitors, particularly top foreign leaders and specialists, should be treated to minimum courtesies and hospitality at an official level. This the State Department representatives are not at present able to do. We strongly recommend that Congress take the necessary steps to correct this indignity.

A small but vexing financial problem that has come repeatedly to our attention is the wide discrepancy between the several agencies of government—the State Department, AID and others—in maintenance or per diem allowances paid to foreign visitors of similar rank. Such variations have led to embarrassment, sensitivity and misinterpretation for foreign guests. We understand that the State Department is attempting to work toward compatibility of maintenance allowances. The Commission strongly commends this effort, and urges a speedy solution.

Extremely important is proper remuneration to universities and colleges which receive foreign students. The universities and colleges provide very important financial support to the program as well as its grantees, and there has been tremendous pressure on the universities for unreimbursed services. A very large proportion—about three-fourths—of all foreign student grantees (outside of Africa), and of research scholars and lecturer grantees are provided only with travel grants. Most of their other costs outside of travel are met by United States universities and colleges. Students' tuition and expenses are paid through university scholarships; scholars and professors are usually paid directly by the college or university which receives them.

For example, for every dollar expended by the exchange program on foreign students, it is estimated that approximately 2 to 4 dollars are put into the program by other—largely academic—agencies. For many educational institutions this has been a heavy burden.

A recent study has suggested that for all foreign students under government-sponsored exchange programs, the Federal Government should provide universities which receive these students with so-called "cost-of-education" grants to meet the additional expenses. Under the NDEA (National Defense Education Act), the government already does this for some American students who are placed in universities under NDEA grants. The Commission feels that the government should do so for all of its sponsored foreign students.

V. Policy and Approaches

Our study focused on the exchange program conducted by the Department of State, but many of our findings inevitably bore upon the exchange program carried on by other government agencies. As a result, we believe we can suggest important policy considerations which relate to all Government programs of educational exchange, and which must be kept in view if these programs are to be most effectively conducted.

Coordination With Foreign Policy

International educational and cultural affairs are activities with a significant relationship to the more conventional aspects of foreign affairs. They should be seen as an integral and essential part of America's constructive relations with other nations.

Coordination of Government Exchange Programs

Virtually every serious observer in our study has noted the need for greater coordination among the various government agencies in the field of international educational and cultural exchange. In his statement of February 27, 1961, the President emphasized that he expected the Secretary of State to accomplish such coordination. But not until the Executive Order of June 25, 1962, was there any clarity as to responsibility for government-wide leadership and policy guidance with regard to foreign educational exchange programs of the several government agencies. Under this Order the Secretary of State was given this responsibility, and delegated it to the Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs, the new post created early in 1961 in recognition of the high importance the United States attaches to its cultural and educational programs. It is too early to judge the full consequences of the Executive Order, although some important steps have already been taken.

The agencies involved have shown an earnest desire to cooperate and the Assistant Secretary has played a significant role in furthering such cooperation, working informally and with the wholehearted voluntary participation of relevant agencies. He has established various inter-agency committees to bring an integrated approach and some order to the tangled field of English-language teaching. He has set up a Government Advisory Committee on International Book Programs to coordinate the many government efforts in the field of book publication and distribution overseas. He has played an active role in inter-agency efforts toward developing suitable programs to reach significant young leaders on a country-by-country basis. A series of meetings held by the Assistant Secretary have helped to untangle the complex frictions and tensions between private and public agencies dealing with Africa and brought extremely useful results. The Commission lauds these efforts.

There is ample evidence that the recent regional reorganization of the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (the so-called "CU" arm) in the Department of State has immensely facilitated coordination of the Bureau with other government agencies. Prior to this, other agencies which were organized geographically had no logical point of contact with the CU Bureau.

But the problem of a fully coordinated approach to specific programs, including those named above, is not yet solved; and many people, including the Assistant Secretary himself, feel that much time and attention will be needed to bring about a satisfactory solution. On some questions and issues, there is still a real want of the kind of inter-agency coordination that is universally desired by thoughtful people. Complaints of lack of coordination are most concrete and vivid at the overseas posts, but confusion in the field usually stems from failure of coordination in Washington. The consequences in the field can be both embarrassing and injurious to the interests of the United States. In the field lack of coordination can also impede one of the most significant recommendations to come out in our survey—the need to plan the exchange program on a country-by-country basis.

Country-by-Country Planning

Throughout our survey, the Commission found universal agreement that the exchange program must be planned on a country-by-country basis to be fully effective. All agree it is impossible to draw up a plan equally suitable for all nations, or to decide upon an answer applicable everywhere to such questions as: Should there be more student grantees, more women or more "leaders"? What kinds of advanced training should be provided? What special efforts should be made for youth groups? How serious is the language barrier? Countries show distinct differences as to what types of exchange are most valuable and effective, as our 20-country study and our inquiry to Embassy posts have amply testified.

Some effort has already been made by the State Department to develop country-by-country planning for its exchange program. Overseas, the Embassies and Bi-National Commissions have had considerable autonomy in initiating proposals for an exchange program adapted to their particular country. In Washington the recent reorganization of the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs on geographic lines is expected greatly to help in reviewing these proposals from the field and in supplementing them with the informed counsel of persons knowledgeable about and dealing exclusively with a specific geographic area and its needs and problems. These area desks can now moreover consult and coordinate with the other agencies, such as USIA and AID which are already organized on similar geographic lines, and thus bring an even broader area knowledge to bear in determining the best type of exchange program for India, or Japan or Argentina, etc.

It is apparent however from our inquiries both in the Embassies overseas and within the government in Washington that the exchange programs have not so far been effectively tied in with the total "country plans" in the field, which are intended to embrace the proposals of all U.S. agencies active in each country. In a few countries, particularly where there is an Ambassador who takes special interest in the exchange program, the several U.S. agencies represented at the post have a good working relationship, and coordination of all exchange programs with the country's needs as a whole are well thought out. In others—our information unhappily suggests that these are the majority—there is little to no planning of exchange programs in relation to a total country plan.

The Commission feels strongly that coordination and planning in the field must be more complete, close, constant and effective if the exchange program is fully to serve the interests of each country and meet our particular objectives there. Here the role of the Ambassador is of critical importance. We urge that, wherever he is not already doing so, he take on the active and continuing leadership of the exchange program which is consonant with the program's importance to the country of his assignment and to the American people.

Coordination With Military Exchange Programs

For some years the Department of Defense has operated a program which brings military officers from other countries to the United States to prepare them, through training programs, to operate military equipment provided to other nations under the various military assistance programs. Some 16,000 of such military visitors come to the United States each year, as compared with 5,400 or more foreign grantees brought here under the State Department's educational exchange program.

These military exchanges are rarely coordinated with the other exchange programs originating in U.S. Embassies abroad. The Defense Department has, perhaps properly, viewed its programs as a means of assuring the strength and competence of military personnel to the free world, and has concentrated on military training during the officers' visits in the United States. In doing so, however, it has not adequately recognized, in our view, the opportunity of using these programs to acquaint these visiting officers with the social, economic and political structure of the United States. A series of studies made on this problem over recent years has expressed the same view.

The use of these training programs for a broader purpose, concurrent with training in military fields, must be approached with care, but the opportunity is very great and should be seized upon. The recent trend toward giving the military visitors maximum exposure to the United States, to American people, and to the American system in general, is to be commended and encouraged. Moreover, in view of the location of many military posts in Southern communities, it is important that a positive effort be made by the U.S. military to afford constructive opportunities for foreign visitors to receive an unprejudiced view of the Negro's role and potential in America.

Coordination of Government-to-University Relationships

Better coordination between government and the universities is imperative. Educational institutions are very much the heart of the exchange program. Over half of all foreign grantees are affiliated with an American university during their visits to the United States. Moreover, increasingly, the American universities are being called upon by government for a great variety of services not only for the exchange program but for educational development projects abroad. Yet the total picture of the university vis-a-vis the exchange and educational programs of the State Department and other government agencies has not been a clear one.

The universities have not been as closely drawn into planning as they should, if they are to be asked to play a large part in carrying out the plans made. Their personnel and facilities have been used, but they have not been involved in policy and planning to the extent possible and desirable. This is particularly important where certain universities have particular interest in specified overseas areas—Latin America or the Far East for example, which would enable them to contribute materially to planning appropriate programs for these areas for government support. Instead, the universities are all too frequently approached on a "crash" basis, for emergency help with what should and could have been a well-thought-out long-range program. Finally, some government agencies, in their use of universities, have not paid due regard to the university's essential character as an autonomous educational institution with its own standards, methods and integrity as to both administration and scholarship.

The Commission urges that the Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs continue to take all reasonable and possible steps to increase the areas of understanding between government agencies and the universities which collaborate in foreign education and exchange assignments, and to cooperate in working out some agreed-upon ground rules for such collaboration. We commend the Assistant Secretary's recent efforts to bring the relevant government agency representatives together to discuss these urgent problems, and to conduct clarifying discussions of these problems with university leaders. We suggest that the smaller colleges as well as the universities be included in these efforts.

Cooperation With Private and Voluntary Agencies

In a pluralistic society, the government will not wish to control or coordinate the vast range of educational and cultural exchange activities carried on by various private elements in the society. But it is essential that the government collaborate effectively with the non-governmental world. The exchange program has already benefited enormously from the work of the non-profit organizations, as well as of the universities and also owes a great debt to volunteers and voluntary agencies. The energies and resources of these non-governmental organizations could be brought to bear on the program even more fully and effectively if they and the Assistant Secretary for Educational and Cultural Affairs plan to meet as necessary to solve common problems and collaborate where it serves their own and their country's interests.

The Exchange Program in the Developing Countries

All sources in our survey urge that the exchange program directly concern itself with the strengthening of educational and other social institutions in the developing countries. The Commission thoroughly agrees. This task is, of course, the primary concern of AID, the Agency for International Development, but inevitably it becomes a consideration in all exchange programs carried on in a developing nation.

Certainly, in no other area of educational and cultural activities is there greater need for careful, long-term, country-by-country planning than in the developing nations. The plan for each of these nations must be based on a thorough examination of (a) the obstacles to development in that country, (b) the steps required to remove those obstacles and to provide the basis for solid growth, (c) the political, educational and sociological requirements for the development of free institutions, and (d) the nation's long-term manpower needs. Then the efforts of all agencies must be coordinated in carrying out the country plan. Every effort should be bent toward creating the social, political and economic institutions essential to the nation's development.

In selecting exchange grantees and in choosing the fields in which they are to be educated or informed, attention must be given to the manpower requirements generated by these objectives. We speak of manpower not only in the restricted technical sense, but in the broad sense of an educated effective citizenry, capable of taking political and social leadership in the country's development.

It is here that the State Department's educational and cultural exchange program plays one of its most significant roles. This is to help change attitudes, which tangibly and intangibly have so much to do with growth. One of our most knowledgeable respondents has put the matter well: "Economic and social reform in the new and needful countries of Asia, the Near East and Africa—and in Latin America and the Caribbean to which the Alliance for Progress is addressed—will be feasible only to the extent that attitudes are changed in the realm of politics and policies, that intelligence is challenged and upgraded, and that the development of human resources is accomplished. These are immense undertakings in which foreign (and especially U.S.) intervention and assistance are a difficult and delicate enterprise politically. The somewhat indirect and oblique, but vitally essential, approach through education and cultural affairs is the most welcomed and accepted, the least likely to be resented or suspected, the most potent long-range."

It is in this role that what we have called the catalytic function of the State Department program is most valuable. By careful selection, the exchange program can choose a few key persons who will catalyze or give a forward thrust to an entire development program or institution on their return. Some may be specialized technical people—key medical men, scientists, engineers. Some, however, must be able "generalists" who through widened vision and knowledge can create and administer better technical development programs, and provide leadership to their societies.

The urgent needs of some of the new nations leads the exchange program to bring large numbers of young people to the United States today for study and training, sometimes at the undergraduate as well as the graduate level. For the time being it must continue to do so. Many types of education can more appropriately and effectively, however, be carried out on the country's home ground, and the exchange program must constantly move to strengthen home country institutions. For this purpose, the Commission believes that more teachers should be sent abroad. In some countries they can best be sent under the State Department exchange program; in others, it may be more feasible to send teachers through the Peace Corps, AID, or other agencies.

To help build up home-country institutions, the exchange program must also encourage more university-to-university relationships. Although some of these relationships have not been wholly successful, basically the university-to-university concept is useful and in some cases has proved exceptionally valuable. The relationship of the University of Chicago with Catholic University in Santiago, for instance, has resulted in an impressive revitalization of the study of economics in Chile, spreading even to other Latin American countries. In all such programs, it is important that there be sufficient program depth and scope to establish a deep-rooted association that will create a reservoir of the trained talent and professional zeal needed to make an enduring impact.

In assisting the developing nations, much wider use should be made of the "third-country" approach, although "CU" itself is legally limited in the extent it can do so. Under this approach, grantees are chosen for study or visits not to the United States but to a third country which provides study experience more pertinent than that of the highly advanced United States. Some examples of the "third-country" institutions that have been suggested are the American Farm School in Greece, the American University at Beirut; the University College at Sierra Leone. Some of the third-countries suggested for observation of development techniques are Jamaica and Israel. Puerto Rico, while not technically a "third country," has already been an inspiration to many visitors from developing nations.

How to bring up the developing countries more rapidly is a challenge to all exchange programs. Although much has already been done, we can all agree that neither the United States Government nor private agencies have yet drawn fully enough upon available experience or understanding on the best ways to do the job.

Geographic Emphasis

Our study has shown widespread concern about the proposals made in recent years to cut back the exchange of persons program in Europe. While the amount of foreign currencies has remained fairly steady, dollar grants for exchange of persons with Western Europe have already been cut back sharply. A gradual reduction of USIA programs in Europe has also taken place and accents any cut-back in the educational and cultural exchange effort.

The Commission seriously questions the wisdom of any tendency to downgrade the program in Europe. We realize, of course, that the limitation on funds for the program as a whole has forced some hard decisions as to best use of scant resources, particularly with emergence of extensive new needs in Africa. We know too that some people believe that Europe, now that it is prospering, should on its own maintain its end of an exchange program. Others believe that since we are bound as allies with Western Europe, the need no longer exists to foster greater mutual understanding through a consistent government-sponsored program.

The Commission agrees that the underdeveloped areas should participate fully in the exchange program, but we believe that downgrading the program in Europe would be most unwise.

At this point in history, Europe is possibly undergoing more fateful changes than many of the underdeveloped nations of the world. We do not clearly know—nor perhaps do the Europeans themselves—precisely what form the new Europe will take. But we do know that we must keep in touch with it. As recent events have shown, the need for mutual understanding, far from being past, is increasing rather than diminishing.

Further, Europe serves in a vital capacity as a "third country" resource vis-a-vis the developing nations. Cultural bonds between the former colonial peoples and Europe remain deep and strong. Tens of thousands of Africans, Asians, Caribbeans, young men and women from the Middle East—far more indeed than during the colonial past—are today coming to Europe for their education, for professional and cultural contacts, for their general knowledge and understanding of the rest of the world—including their understanding of the United States.

We believe, however, that in Europe as elsewhere the exchange program should be thought out afresh for each country and specifically designed for the country's needs and character. As our survey overseas has shown, distinct variations exist in reactions to an exchange experience—as between grantees from Britain and from France, for example. The unique character of French reactions to many aspects of the State Department program, particularly the educational aspects, were indeed so great as to suggest the possible need for a wholly different approach for France.

The Need for Quality in All Exchange Activities

Government can carry only a limited share of the total of international educational and cultural affairs. These things which the government does undertake should be carried on at the highest level of quality. It doesn't have to do everything, but what it does should be a model of how such things are best done.

Programs which have proved of less value, or to be ineffective in a given country, should be dropped. For instance, it appears that the so-called "head-for-head" teacher exchange with the United Kingdom has not proved either sufficiently workable or valuable to be continued, certainly in its present form. At all times there should be scrutiny and review of all programs so that those which do not meet the highest standards of quality or performance are modified or weeded out; and so that priority, in terms of time and resources, is given only to those phases of the program which have demonstrated their quality and effectiveness.

The Role of CU

Finally, we feel it necessary to put the role of the educational and cultural affairs arm of the State Department (the so-called "CU" arm) in its proper perspective. Four or five government agencies are involved in educational exchange in a major way, many more in a minor way. It is not surprising that some confusion has arisen as to the goals of the various agencies.

In the case of CU, this confusion has been heightened by the fact that other agencies (e.g., AID, the National Science Foundation, the National Institutes of Health, the Peace Corps, etc.) have come into the field with fairly clear-cut and specialized objectives, or deal with a special category of persons. Alongside the programs of these specialized agencies, the CU objectives appear vague. But they are not.

CU's objectives must be understood at two levels. First of all, CU has the charge of assisting the Secretary of State in his responsibility for coordinating all international educational and cultural activities. It is the one agency that must never cease to look at the whole range of international educational and cultural programs, governmental and private; and never cease to ask itself what the role of government should be with respect to that total range. Particularly, CU must understand, support, and relate itself to the international educational and cultural activities of all other relevant governmental agencies, and must comprehend how each may contribute to a unified effort.

At another level, CU conducts a program of its own. Not itself a specialized program, in one sense it is the mother of all the specialized programs, and may be rightly proud of the role it played in demonstrating at an early date the usefulness of these activities. Its very nature as a generalized activity is that it should explore and open up many lines of interest, some of which will prove worthy of more intensive exploitation by specialized agencies.

But the primary role of CU is not to spawn future programs. It is to provide a broad and basic coverage of the field of educational and cultural affairs. It is concerned with aspects so basic and pervading that they cannot be chopped up into the concerns of specialized agencies, and with individuals whose talents and purposes do not necessarily fit the boundary lines of special programs.

For, unlike those programs with their sharply defined objectives, the particular genius of the State Department exchange program is its very flexibility, its broad range, its ability to reach out to and foster the humanistic concerns of the American people and people overseas.

Looking back at the program's first 14 years as a world-wide activity of the Department of State, we believe that the Congress and the American people can feel pride and deep satisfaction that, although some improvements are yet to be made, the exchange program they conceived has proved so effective to their purposes. As it has developed in the course of these years, it has established itself as a basic ingredient of the foreign relations of the United States. There is no other international activity of our Government that enjoys so much spontaneous public approval, elicits such extensive citizen participation, and yields such impressive evidences of success. In a time when most international activities seem almost unbearably complex, hazardous and obscure in outcome, the success of educational exchange is a beacon of hope.

APPENDIX

Number and Kind of Grantees by Geographic Area

- A. Fiscal Years 1949–1962 inclusive
- B. Program Year 1961–1962
- C. Program Year 1960–1961

A. NUMBER AND KIND OF GRANTEES BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA

Fiscal Years 1949–1962 inclusive

American Grantees	To Europe	To Latin America	To the Near East	To Africa	To the Far East	Total
Students	9, 045	394	265	11	506	10, 221
Lecturers and Research Scholars	2, 897	542	972	101	966	[1] 5, 480
Teachers	2, 668	210	372	116	359	3, 725
Specialists	816	279	241	60	242	[2] 1, 986
Total	15, 426	1, 425	1, 850	288	2, 073	21, 412

[1] Includes 2 lecturers who had grants to visit more than one geographic area.

[2] Includes 348 specialists with grants to visit more than one area.

Foreign Grantees	From Europe	From Latin America	From the Near East	From Africa	From the Far East	Total
Students	13, 511	3, 983	3, 144	609	4, 040	25, 287
Lecturers and Research Scholars	4, 063	230	580	46	1, 191	6, 110
Teachers	3, 418	1, 320	665	128	844	6, 375
Leaders	7, 706	1, 432	1, 153	502	1, 556	12, 349
Specialists	832	459	565	240	556	2, 652
Total	29, 530	7, 424	6, 107	1, 525	8, 187	52, 773

B. NUMBER AND KIND OF GRANTEES BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA

Program Year 1961–1962

American Grantees	To Europe	To Latin America	To the Near East	To Africa	To the Far East	Total
Students	676	52	25	. . .	33	786
Lecturers and Research Scholars	279	84	188	30	93	[1] 675
Teachers	255	54	60	31	24	424
Specialists	51	49	33	22	42	[2] 218
Total	1, 261	239	306	83	192	2, 103

[1] Includes 1 lecturer with a grants to visit more than one area.

[2] Includes 21 specialists with grants to visit more than one area.

B. NUMBER AND KIND OF GRANTEES BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA—Co

Program Year 1961–1962

Foreign Grantees	From Europe	From Latin America	From the Near East	From Africa	From the Far East	Total
Students	980	757	433	149	346	2, 665
Lecturers and Research Scholars	358	43	77	9	134	621
Teachers	271	280	78	25	82	736
Leaders	239	200	118	157	160	874
Specialists	166	93	125	61	113	558
Total	2, 014	1, 373	831	401	835	5, 454

C. NUMBER AND KIND OF GRANTEES BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA

Program Year 1960–1961

American Grantees	To Europe	To Latin America	To the Near East	To Africa	To the Far East	Total
Students	674	47	18	. . .	39	778
Lecturers and Research Scholars	274	68	112	15	91	560
Teachers	210	62	53	12	38	375
Specialists	64	49	34	17	48	[1] 229
Total	1, 222	226	217	44	216	[1] 1, 942

[1] Includes 17 specialists who received grants for visiting more than one area.

Foreign Grantees	From Europe	From Latin America	From the Near East	From Africa	From the Far East	Total
Students	825	747	322	129	343	2, 366
Lecturers and Research Scholars	373	40	47	4	125	589
Teachers	330	163	80	34	98	705
Leaders	306	141	101	115	106	769
Specialists	160	75	100	40	57	432
Total	1, 994	1, 166	650	322	729	4, 861

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